

THE TEACHER

AND SCHOOL

ORGANIZATION

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THE TEACHER AND
SCHOOL ORGANIZATION

PRENTICE-HALL EDUCATION SERIES

E. George Payne, Editor

THE TEACHER *and* SCHOOL ORGANIZATION

BY

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AND

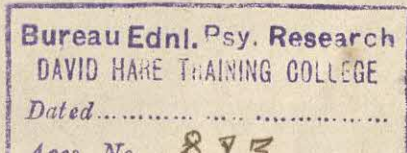
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PREFACE

THERE WAS a time when the teacher was largely a law to himself, and when his responsibilities were restricted almost wholly to the conduct of a prescribed number of recitations. However, that time is past or is rapidly passing. Today the teacher must function as an integral part of the complex organization through which the public schools are operated. In numerous ways his work is involved with that of trustees and local boards of education, superintendents and their immediate assistants, principals, supervisors, janitors, and a variety of state school officials. In order that he may work effectively in all these relationships, it is highly important that the teacher familiarize himself with the organization for the control of education, with the various units of government and the agencies involved in this organization, and with their relationships to one another.

Furthermore, with the passing of time, more and more emphasis is being placed on teacher participation in school administration. Most present-day administrators emphasize the idea of democracy in school life. They believe that teachers should be encouraged to participate in the solution of those administrative problems that directly affect the professional status of the teacher and those that are immediately associated with the instructional process. Teachers' contributions to the development of salary schedules, to the revision of curricula, and to textbook selection are examples of teacher participation so common in our well managed school systems that the point needs no elaboration. Teachers are expected to participate in a variety of tasks that are essentially administrative in character. If they are to discharge these responsibilities effectively, it is necessary that they have some understanding of the problems involved. It is essential also that they be able to analyze these problems not only from the viewpoint of the individual teacher but also from the viewpoint

of the administrator and in terms of the general purposes of the school system.

In the preparation of the teacher, the considerations suggested above have been given too little attention. Between the general field of educational psychology, evaluation, and guidance, and the field of method and student teaching, there is an area that has been neglected until recently. We have been careful to prepare the teacher in his field or fields of academic specialization; we have tried to insure that he will be a student of the learner and the learning process and of instructional materials and methods; but we have failed to give him an understanding of the school organization of which he is to become a part and of the varied responsibilities that he must assume.

Essentially, this book has been written for this purpose. It seeks to give the reader an understanding of the scope and general character of the American public school system, of its organization and the administrative units and agencies through which it is managed, and of those administrative tasks in which the classroom teacher may be expected to participate.

The Teacher and School Organization was first published in 1936. The present edition is more than a mere revision of the original text. The book has been expanded to cover additional topics, data have been brought up to date, and in some respects the approach has been altered in terms of recent educational developments. Almost all of the work of revising and expanding the text has been done by Dr. Kindred. The resulting joint authorship has produced a more comprehensive treatment and a fresh point of view, without sacrifice of the better qualities of the original text.

Toward the accomplishment of the purposes outlined above the 22 chapters have been presented under six major divisions as follows: (1) The Scope of American Education, (2) The Administration of American Education, (3) Problems of Prospective Teachers, (4) Instructional Responsibilities, (5) Activities Related to Instruction, and (6) Membership in the Teaching Profession. Although the topics treated are for the most part administrative in character, the presentation throughout is from

the viewpoint of the classroom teacher and his responsibilities.

The book is designed primarily to contribute to the preservice training of the teacher who wishes to make his fullest contribution in a modern elementary or secondary school. However, it should also be of benefit to administrators and teachers in service, as a handbook, or as a text for study groups.

The writers desire to express their appreciation to all who have assisted in the preparation of this volume—colleagues, students, and clerical assistants. Particularly, they would extend thanks to the many authors whose writings have been quoted and to the publishers who have granted permission to use copyrighted materials.

L. M. C.

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Part I

INTRODUCTION

Chapter 1

THE SCOPE OF AMERICAN EDUCATION

EDUCATION IN THE United States has undergone a phenomenal growth during the last fifty years. The number of pupils enrolled at all educational levels from the kindergarten through the university has increased tremendously. Vast expansions have taken place in school-plant facilities to accommodate the change in numbers of pupils, but expansions in land and buildings have never been rapid enough to keep pace with demand. At the same time, the needs and interests of the school population have called for wide variations in educational offerings and the extension of school services to meet the problems they presented. More and better-trained teachers have been brought into service and vast sums of public and private funds have been expended for the maintenance and operation of the gigantic system of education these changes have created.

Rarely are the scope and full significance of the educational system of the nation recognized by the layman. Frequently teachers themselves have but a faint conception of the tremendous size of the educational program with which they are associated. It would seem important that those who are teaching and those who plan to teach have a knowledge and understanding of organized education in this country in order to appreciate more fully their place in the scheme of things and the nature of the contribution they are expected to make.

Without such a background, they are unable to interpret, with a fair degree of accuracy, the reasons behind the organized educational efforts of this nation, the means adopted for carrying out the program, and the significance of its place in the economic, social, political, and cultural life of the American people.

Accordingly, attention will be given in this chapter to the scope of American education today and to the developments that have taken place during the last fifty years.

THE SCHOOL POPULATION

The Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1938-1940 and 1940-1942, reports that there were 29,163,039 persons attending full-time day schools in this country during the school year, 1941-1942.¹ This figure includes enrollments in kindergarten and elementary schools, secondary schools, institutions of higher education, private commercial and business schools, and schools of nursing doing preparation beyond the high-school level. Approximately 20,500,000 of these pupils attended full-time elementary day schools, nearly 7,000,000 attended secondary schools, and another 1,400,000 were in schools of higher education. The remaining 400,000 were distributed among federal schools for Indians, private commercial and business schools, and schools of nursing that were not affiliated with colleges and universities.

A further analysis of the enrollment figures discloses a sharp difference between the number of pupils attending public elementary and secondary schools and the number attending private elementary and secondary schools. The number of pupils in attendance at public kindergartens and elementary schools totaled 18,267,335. The number of pupils in attendance at private kindergartens and elementary schools totaled 2,150,896. The obvious difference between public and private school enrollments was even greater at the secondary level: 6,420,544 were going to publicly controlled high schools, and 512,721 to private high schools and academies.

The difference in total enrollments between public and private institutions of higher learning was relatively slight for the school year under consideration. There were 732,111 persons

¹ U. S. Office of Education, *Statistics of State School Systems, 1939-40 and 1941-42*. Biennial Survey of Education, Vol. II, Chap. III. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1944. Unless otherwise indicated, statistics in this chapter have been taken from the above reference.

attending public normal schools, colleges, universities, and professional schools as against 671,879 persons in private institutions of higher learning.

When the growth in school enrollments is traced back over a 50-year period, the changes that have taken place are almost unbelievable, and certainly without parallel in the history of any nation. From 1890 to 1930, the public elementary schools and kindergartens increased in membership from approximately 12,500,000 to almost 21,280,000, an increase of nearly 70 per cent. If the teacher-pupil ratio was set at 1 to 30, this increase of more than 8,000,000 children would have required the addition of about 292,000 teachers during the 40-year period.

The peak enrollment in the public kindergarten and elementary school was reached in 1929-1930. From that time until June, 1942, a steady decrease in numbers took place which amounted to 3,103,925 pupils, or 14.6 per cent. A vital factor responsible for much of this decline was the annual decrease in birth rate from a peak in 1924 to a low in 1936. It is expected that, with an increase in birth rate during the war years, the number of children to be enrolled in the first grade will establish a new high in 1949 or 1950. The growth in public elementary school enrollments, since 1890, is shown in Figure 1. The changes in all elementary school enrollments are given graphically in Figure 2.

The growth in public high school enrollments, over a 50-year period, was relatively many times larger than the growth in the public elementary school population. There were 202,963 youth of secondary school age receiving formal instruction in 1890. As is shown in Figure 3, the number more than doubled during the next ten years and continued to increase with breathtaking speed, reaching a peak of 6,601,444 in the school year, 1939-1940, or an increase of 3,152 per cent.

The long upward trend in secondary school enrollments was influenced by two important factors, according to the United States Office of Education.² The first factor was the peak in

² *Ibid.*, p. 9.

INTRODUCTION

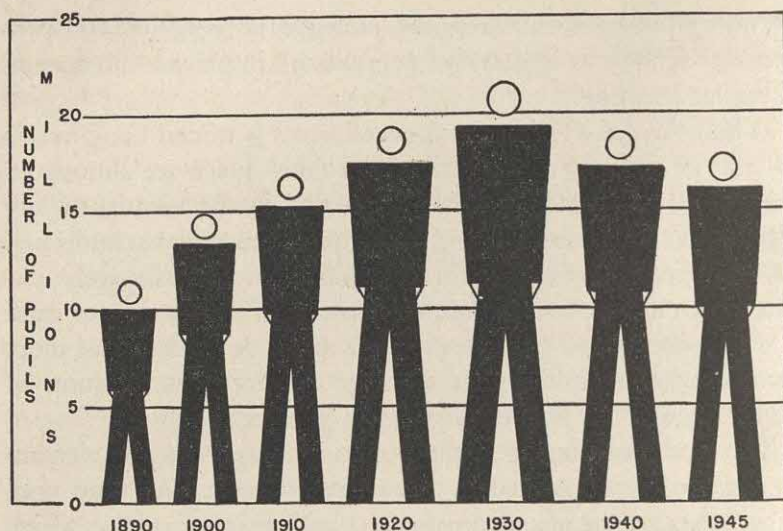


FIGURE 1. The Growth of Public Kindergarten and Elementary School Enrollments in the United States from 1890-1945.

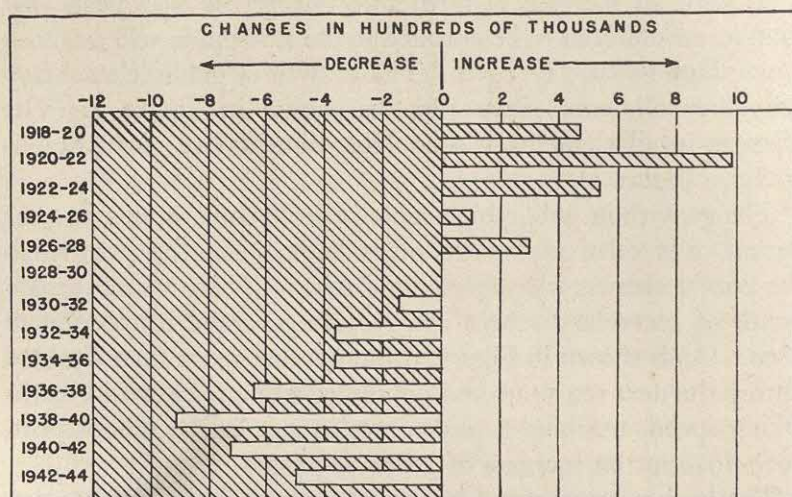


FIGURE 2. Biennial Changes in Elementary School Enrollments, 1918-20 to 1942-44.

Adapted from the U. S. Biennial Surveys of Education 1938-40, 1940-42, and 1943-44.

number of births reached in the early 1920's, whereby the peak in population of 14- to 17-year-old boys and girls occurred about 1940. The second factor pertains to the growing emphasis placed upon the value of a high school education. This emphasis was reflected steadily in the changes made in the compulsory school attendance and child labor laws of every state in the union. The sharp increase in enrollments during the 1930's,

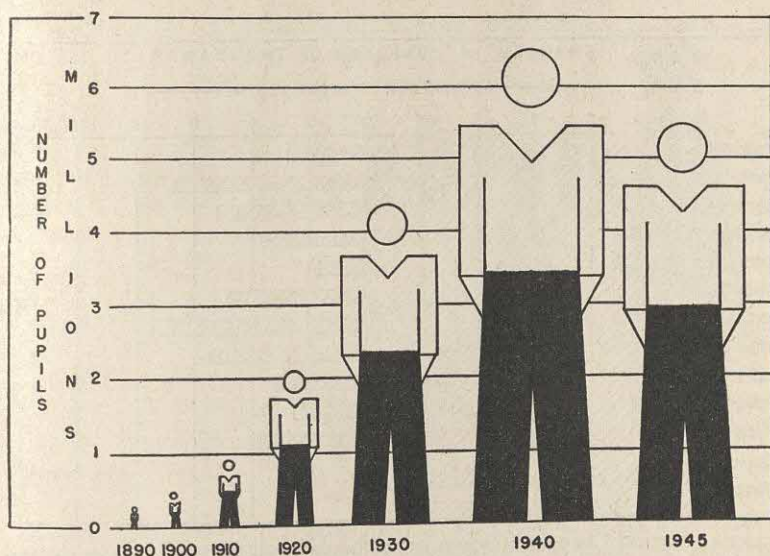


FIGURE 3. The Growth of Public High School Enrollments in the United States from 1890-1945.

however, is attributable principally to economic conditions. Many boys and girls remained in high school who otherwise would have dropped out had work opportunities been available.

Since 1940, secondary school enrollments have decreased, as is shown in Figure 4. The decline was brought about, for the most part, by pupils who left school to take advantage of the high wages paid in business and industry. There were also a number who, upon reaching the age of 17 years, left school to enlist in the armed services of the nation. Many of these youths, and especially boys, have returned to high school to complete

their education since the close of the war. At the same time, the prospect of a poor employment market in the future may cause serious consideration of the need for raising still higher the compulsory school age limits and holding youth a year or more longer in school.

Equally astonishing are the enrollment totals for institutions of higher learning, as shown in Figure 5. Approximately 157,-000 persons were attending public and private colleges and

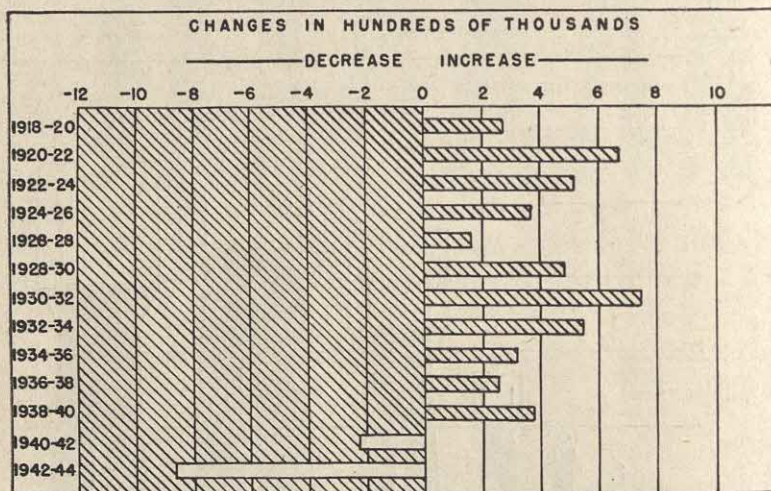


FIGURE 4. Biennial Changes in Secondary School Enrollments 1918-20 to 1942-44. Adapted from the U. S. Biennial Surveys of Education 1938-40, 1940-42, and 1943-44.

universities in 1890. By 1940, the enrollments had grown to 1,500,000, a gain of about 850 per cent. And this last figure does not include those taking correspondence and extension work or those undergoing training for nursing in schools that are not connected with colleges and universities. When these persons are added to the 1940 total enrollment figure, it comes to well over 1,800,000.

There was a sharp decrease in collegiate enrollments during the war years due to dropouts for service in the armed forces of the nation. After hostilities ceased, however, many of these persons returned to school, along with a number of others who

wished to take advantage of the educational benefits provided by Congress for returning veterans. Similarly, many persons entered college who previously had lacked the financial means needed for obtaining a higher education. As a result, enrollments have already reached a new high,³ and will in all probability continue to increase for as long as the G.I. educational benefits remain in force.

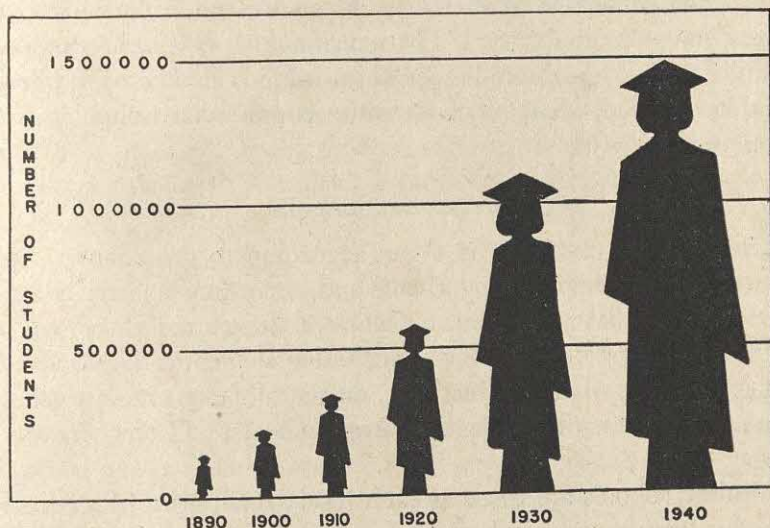


FIGURE 5. The Growth of Enrollments in All Colleges, Universities, Professional Schools, and Normal Schools in the United States from 1890 to 1940.

The enrollment figures for the elementary, secondary, and higher schools give some conception of the scope of organized education in this nation and the striking rate at which progress has been made in recent years to extend the ideas and training basic for life in a democracy.

THE NUMBER OF SCHOOLS

The rapid rise in enrollments has been accompanied by an increase in the number of schools. According to estimates re-

³ Latest available data show that enrollments in institutions of higher learning reached a total of 2,338,226 in 1947. *Fall Enrollments in Higher Educational Institutions* p. 2. Circular No. 238. Washington: U. S. Office of Education, 1947 (Planographed).

ported in the *Statistical Summary of Education, 1941-42*, there were 225,000 schools of various types operating at that time, exclusive of kindergartens.⁴ Of this number, approximately 193,000 were under public supervision and direction. At the secondary level, there were roughly 28,000 high schools and academies operating during the same school year with approximately 25,000 of them publicly owned and controlled. Among the 1,769 schools of higher learning in this country, only 619 were controlled publicly. The remaining types of schools, both public and private, include special institutions for the deaf, blind, feeble minded, delinquent, private commercial schools, and training units for nurses.

TYPES OF SCHOOLS

Schools are classified by types according to the agency supporting and administering them, and according to the educational level they represent. They are designated therefore as public or private, on the one hand, and as elementary, secondary, or institutions of higher learning, on the other. The last group includes universities, colleges, normal schools, and teachers' colleges.

Public schools are those at each level which are financed primarily from taxes paid by people of a local school district or of a state. Private schools are those at each level which are supported by a particular group of people, such as members of a religious denomination, by gifts, and by fees, or by a combination of these three sources. Parish schools of the Roman Catholic Church, and the great private institutions of higher learning, such as Harvard, Yale, Princeton, Dartmouth, Chicago, and Leland Stanford are outstanding examples of privately financed schools.

There are differences of opinion as to what constitutes elementary, secondary, and higher education in the United States. At the beginning of the present century, the elementary school,

⁴ U. S. Office of Education, *Statistical Summary of Education, 1941-42*. Biennial Surveys of Education in the United States, Vol. II, Chap. III. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1944.

almost without exception, encompassed grades one to eight.⁵ The secondary school included grades nine to twelve, and higher education extended from the thirteenth to the sixteenth year and the graduate school.

Today the arrangement of eight grades of elementary school and four years of secondary school has given way to the six-three-three and six-six plan of organization of the first twelve years of the American school system. Current thinking among educators is rapidly turning toward an extension of secondary education to include the thirteenth and fourteenth years, thereby creating a six-four-four organization of public schools. At the same time, there is a strong tendency on the part of some leaders in education to stress the idea of the junior college for the thirteenth and fourteenth years apart from the program conducted by the secondary school.

In view of these and other significant developments, it is important to know how schools are classified for statistical purposes. And, because there are still more school systems in smaller communities organized under the eight-four plan, the United States Office of Education finds it necessary in reporting statistical information to include the first eight grades under elementary education, and grades nine to twelve under the secondary school. Higher education, in these reports, includes all junior colleges, four-year colleges, universities, and other institutions doing work above the twelfth-grade level.

TEACHERS

It has been estimated by the United States Office of Education that there were 417,081 teachers employed at all levels of our school system in 1890. This number increased two and one half times during the next 50 years raising the total to 1,104,283, or about 3.5 per cent of all persons who were gainfully employed at that time.

This change means that the number of public elementary

⁵In some sections of the United States the traditional elementary school included only seven years, while in other localities it was extended to nine. Now it is frequently a six-year school.

school teachers increased from 354,802 to 575,200, or a gain of 62 per cent. Although this is a significant gain, it is relatively small in comparison with the percentage increase in the number of secondary school teachers. The number of teachers in public high schools increased from 9,120 to 300,277, an increase of about 3,193 per cent in a period of 50 years. A similar expansion occurred in institutions of higher learning. The instructional staffs of these institutions, both public and private, went from 13,216 in number to an estimated 116,617 during the same period of time, an increase of about 783 per cent.

The distribution of teachers by sex in all types of schools shows that there were approximately 300,000 men and 803,000 women employed in 1940. Approximately 67,000 of these men and 508,000 of these women were teaching in public elementary schools, whereas 127,000 men and 173,000 women were teaching in public secondary schools. The number employed in all normal schools, teachers' colleges, university and professional schools came to about 86,200 men and 30,500 women.

With the advent of World War II, and the participation of this nation in the conflict, a decrease in teacher employment of approximately 5 per cent took place. Some sections of the country suffered greater losses than did others, depending upon the shifts in wartime population and the prevailing rates of wages in sectional industries. The decrease was felt more sharply at the secondary level, in consequence of enlistments of men teachers in the armed forces and their entrance into private industry and civil service; they needed higher incomes to support themselves and their families than were being paid by public and private education. Although many of these teachers returned to their classrooms after the war, others remained in wartime occupations. The result has been a scarcity of qualified individuals to direct learning in the classrooms of our public and private schools.

THE COST OF EDUCATION

The expansion of the educational program at the elementary, secondary, and higher levels has been accompanied by enormous

increases in expenditures for school purposes. These expenditures reached a yearly total of \$3,203,547,586 in 1942. Of this amount, \$2,671,000,000 went for the support of public schools and \$532,000,000 for the support of private schools. Expenditures for private schools were actually higher than the figure given here because the funds derived from tuition fees in the fields of commercial education, private trade and vocational preparation, art, music, drama, and correspondence study were not reported to the United States Office of Education where the statistics concerning education in this country are compiled.

The cost of public and private education at various levels for the school year 1941-1942 was approximately \$1,623,000,000 for elementary schools, \$934,000,000 for secondary schools, and \$695,000,000 for institutions of higher learning. These statements of cost do not include expenditures for special classes in residential schools for exceptional children and for Indians on reservations.

Funds expended only for public elementary schools amounted to approximately \$1,454,000,000; for public secondary schools, \$869,000,000; and, for public institutions of higher learning, \$429,000,000. The combined expenditures for public education July 1, 1942, averaged 8.5 cents per pupil daily for each of the 86,017,000 persons of voting age, exclusive of members of the armed forces abroad, or an average annual cost of about \$30 per pupil.

The cost of public education in individual states ranged from approximately \$2,925,000 in Nevada to more than \$376,000,000 in New York. Six of the 48 states spent more than \$100,000,000 each for the support of public elementary and secondary schools, and in 29 states the total cost respectively exceeded \$20,000,000. These differences in total expenditures produced wide variations in amounts of money spent per pupil in average daily attendance. In 1939-40, Mississippi spent only \$42.75 per pupil, as shown in Figure 6, compared with \$164.79 in California and \$184.21 in New York. The average for the United States came to \$115.61 per pupil in average daily attendance.

The figures on school expenditures are so large that their sig-

INTRODUCTION

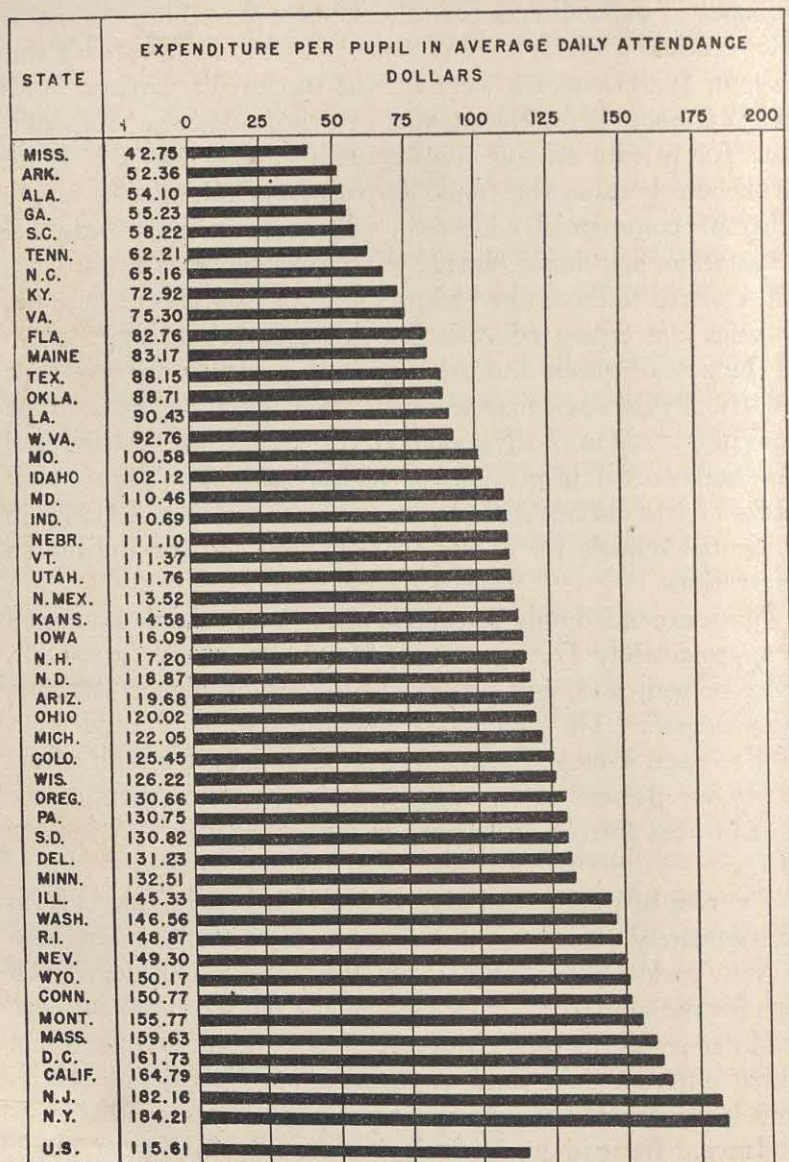


FIGURE 6. Expenditure Per Pupil in Average Daily Attendance for Current Expense (Including Interest) by State, 1939-40.
Adapted from the U. S. Biennial Surveys of Education 1938-40, 1940-42.

nificance is difficult to grasp, yet the stupendous outlay for the entire educational program that is carried on represents a charge of only about ten and one half cents a day for each person of voting age. This is relatively a small amount of money compared with the amounts spent for passenger automobiles, tobacco, soft drinks, ice cream, entertainment, cosmetics, sporting goods, and toys.

In spite of the low per capita cost of education, many taxpayers are deeply concerned about the amount of money they must pay in support of schools. They ask why costs of education have gone so high in the last quarter century. They point out that the rise in costs is out of proportion to increases in school enrollments. A research bulletin of the National Education Association gives an answer to these questions.⁶ It points out that from 1914 to 1930 expenditures for public elementary and secondary schools rose 318 per cent while the number of pupils in these schools increased only 34 per cent; the average daily attendance, about 50 per cent; the average length of the school term, 9 per cent; and the enrollments in public high schools, 261 per cent. But the increase in school expenditures, according to this study, was not occasioned only by increased enrollments. Services provided by schools for the better education and guidance of pupils accounted for a substantial share of the increased costs, as well as the decreased purchasing power of the dollar. As schools continue to expand their services and to play a more important role in the life of this nation, their future costs are bound to increase.

SCHOOL PROPERTY

The value of school property in the United States is another index to the vast size of our educational undertaking. The property values of public elementary and secondary school systems for the school year 1941-1942 amounted to \$8,594,303,256. This amount included \$7,801,417,262 in land, buildings, and equipment, and \$792,885,994 in permanent school funds, state

⁶ *Facts on School Costs*, Research Bulletin of the National Education Association, Vol. X, No. 5, November, 1932.

debts to permanent school funds, and the estimated value of unsold school lands.

The valuations of school property in individual states ranged from approximately \$7,500,000 in Nevada to \$1,172,000,000 in New York. Eighteen of the 48 states each held school property in excess of \$100,000,000. The range in valuation per pupil in average daily attendance was from \$103 in Alabama to \$670 in New York. Sixteen states and the District of Columbia had unit valuations in excess of \$400 for each pupil in average daily attendance. For the United States as a whole, this type of property represented an average valuation of \$371 per pupil. These figures give some idea of the public investment in the physical facilities of our educational system.

OTHER EXPANSIONS

Although increases in enrollments, teaching personnel, costs of education, and the value of school property reveal something of the phenomenal growth of the American educational system during the past half century, they do not tell the entire story. Other types of expansion have paralleled these increases. For example, in 1890 the average length of the school term in the United States was 130.3 days, or about six and one half school months. By 1920 the average term had increased to 161.9 days; by 1930 to 172.7 days, and by 1940 to 175.0 days.

With the increases in school enrollments and the lengthening of the school term, comparable increases have taken place in services provided by schools. The simple curriculum of the early elementary school, which included only reading, writing, arithmetic, and spelling, was meager indeed when viewed in terms of the elementary school program today. To this early curriculum have been added geography, history, language, art, music, health, physical education, nature study or elementary science, home arts, manual arts, and other miscellaneous offerings. The more modern conceptions of education, as they are expressed in the activity movement, go considerably beyond the subjects which have been added to the curriculum. Rich ex-

periences, covering many fields of learning, are now provided as means for directing the total growth of the individual.

The expansion of the secondary school curriculum has been even more pronounced. Fifty years ago, high schools and academies were concerned primarily with the preparation of students for college. A selective process operated through the elementary and high school grades which eliminated those who lacked ability to succeed in academic fields of learning. But the steady and spectacular influx of boys and girls, who sought an education that fitted them principally for life and the pursuit of a livelihood, modified the prevailing concept of secondary education. As a result, a broader choice of subjects has been introduced and the underlying purposes of secondary education have been revised. New subjects have been added to the curriculum, such as social science, commercial studies, industrial arts, household arts, agriculture, distributive occupations, practical mathematics, and general science. The school is no longer conceived of as functioning exclusively for the more capable college-bound student. Instead, it looks more to the social welfare of all individuals entrusted to its care and to their development as persons. Successful living in a democratic society and the integration of personality have become the targets of secondary education.

In addition to these changes, both in elementary and secondary education, services to school children have gone beyond the previous limits of classroom instruction. They now include medical and dental inspection; counseling and guidance in educational, personal, and social affairs; psychiatric service; special classes for exceptional children; clinical studies of behavior problems; research; home visitation by trained social case workers; special materials for slow and backward readers; and many other services and means for the better adaptation of the school to the needs of the individual. Better-trained teachers and a greater degree of specialization have also contributed to the growing value of school services.

Besides this horizontal expansion, represented by growth in

the curriculum and in services to children, a vertical expansion of the educational program has also occurred. The lower age limit for admission to school was dropped during the latter part of the last century to include the kindergarten, and during recent years there has been a movement to establish nursery schools for the educational guidance of children at three and four years of age. In the opposite direction, the development has included provision for secondary school opportunities for the great majority of youth, the opening of colleges and universities to all who can qualify for entrance and find the means to attend, and the establishment of hundreds of special schools and classes for adults. Thus the effect of these developments has been the expansion of services in broad fields of learning and the extension of opportunity to a larger segment of our population.

THE FUTURE

What is to be the future of education in the United States with respect to enrollments, services rendered, and expenditures? Virtually all school authorities, as well as a large proportion of lay people, believe that educational opportunities in elementary and secondary education should be made available to every boy and girl in the United States. Most school people go a step further in their proposal that the compulsory school ages be extended to include the entire secondary school period. If the general theory of universal elementary and secondary education was translated into practice, what would it mean in terms of enrollments?

In 1942, it was estimated that public school enrollments represented 84.2 per cent of the population from five to seventeen years of age, inclusive. If we assume that the contributions of the private school are balanced by the extra burden of those over seventeen years of age, we must conclude that the job of universal elementary and secondary education will not be completed until there are more than 30,000,000 boys and girls enrolled in the public elementary and secondary schools of the United States, or almost 5,500,000 more than were cared for in 1942. This statement does not take into consideration the sharp in-

crease in birth rates during the war years; it is based upon normal increases in population for the period under discussion.

The extension of universal education will mean larger enrollments at the secondary level and higher costs because a more heterogeneous pupil population will be brought into the high school. It will present wide variations in personal and social differences and call for the expensive adaptation of curricula, methods, materials, equipment, and personnel, if the school is to function effectively in preparing these pupils for life in our time.

Some educational enthusiasts insist that higher education be made available to all young people. They recognize, of course, that the kinds of education provided for these students would have to be fitted to their many needs and interests. It is not difficult to conceive of what this would mean in terms of larger enrollments—even though such education were limited to the 13th and 14th years of school—and the increase in costs it would entail, since the existing program in higher education now services only slightly more than 2,400,000 students.

Is education already costing too much? Is it possible to carry out the proposed program of universal elementary and secondary education? Can higher education be placed in the same category with the elementary and secondary schools, or would such a program constitute an impossible financial burden? These are but a few of the questions that arise when consideration is given to the scope and future development of the American educational program. They are fundamental questions that are of primary importance to the social and economic life of this nation. They are a challenge to the best brains that can be found among our people.

The solution of these questions and many others, stemming from the current system of public education, demands that highly qualified individuals enter the teaching profession. They must be men and women who can lend intelligent assistance to the problem of working out the ends we seek in American education; who can perform efficiently in the classroom; who have a broad perspective and a thorough acquaintance with the

organization and administration of the machinery that controls and directs the educational effort; who can aid constructively in the solution of administrative problems that affect directly the work and welfare of pupils, teachers, and the community.

It is from this point of view that the student is introduced to the various problems and relationships with which he must become familiar in order to make his fullest contribution to education in American life.

Part II

THE ADMINISTRATION
OF AMERICAN EDUCATION

Chapter 2

THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT

THE RELATIONSHIP of the federal government to public education in state and local communities has become a subject of controversy among educators and laymen in the United States. Traditionally, this country has 48 state school systems, each of which is entirely independent of the others, and relatively free from federal supervision or control. Our decentralized system of education developed from the local community upward and not from the federal government downward. But certain changes that have taken place in federal educational policies suggest an established trend toward greater centralization of authority contrary to the historical pattern of American education.

The growth in federal power over education has created a problem holding strong interest for every classroom teacher. It is important in trying to think through this problem fairly and constructively that teachers should be familiar with the changes that have taken place in the federal position with respect to public education. It is important that they know about the education activities carried on by the federal government and their value to children and youth in the United States. In order to supply basic information pertinent to the problem of federal participation in education, the present chapter will consider the constitutional aspects of the problem, the development of federal relations to education, the issues involved, the educational programs of federal agencies, and the implications of the entire problem for classroom teachers.

THE CONSTITUTION

The principle has long been accepted that education is a function of the state and a responsibility of the local community.

No reference can be found in the United States Constitution indicating in any way that education should be a concern of the federal government. That the states should assume the educational function is strongly implied in the Tenth Amendment, which provides that "the powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States respectively, or to the people." As a consequence, every state constitution expressly provides for public school systems.

The reasons why the framers of the Constitution omitted any reference to education are understandable. Few, if any, of those men attended a public school; they had come through a system of private tuition schools, many of which were maintained and controlled by religious organizations. In fact, except in the New England colonies where the relationship of the state to the education of the people had undergone a definite development, education was a private matter. Being private school products and members of the upper economic class, they gave little consideration to the question of education for the masses. They were more naturally concerned about the momentous issues underlying the establishment of a stable government for the new nation.

The federal policy then, at the beginning of the new government, appeared definitely to be one of "hands off" so far as public education was concerned. Interestingly enough, this policy did not hold for very long. Cases arose involving the disposal and sale of public lands which brought about decisions from the United States Supreme Court that gave to the federal government a power over education in the states and territories.

The Supreme Court ruled, for example, that Congress had the right to grant lands and to appropriate money for promoting education. The reasoning of the court was based upon the Preamble of the Constitution which sets up as a purpose of government the promotion of the general welfare of the nation. It was also based upon specific constitutional provisions which enable Congress to "collect taxes to provide for the general welfare of the United States," and which give to Congress the right "to

dispose of and make all needful rules and regulations respecting the territory and other property belonging to the United States.”¹

Other decisions creating an authoritative relationship of the federal government to education in the states have been handed down under the “due process” clause of the Fourteenth Amendment. This amendment provides that no person shall be deprived of “life, liberty, or property, without due process of law.” In a case in point, the question was raised whether a state legislature could prohibit the teaching of foreign languages in public and nonpublic elementary schools. It was held that a state legislature could not prohibit the teaching of a foreign language on grounds that it deprived the teacher of the right to follow his vocation and the right of parents to hire such a teacher for their children.²

In an Oregon case involving a state statute which was based upon a state constitutional amendment requiring all children between the ages of six and sixteen years to attend the public schools, the Supreme Court ruled that this law was contrary to that section of the United States Constitution which guaranteed life and liberty under law.³ The court pointed out that the statute interfered with the right of parents to raise and educate their children as they see fit, and that it would deprive private and parochial schools of their property without due process of law.

It is evident in the cases cited, and many others which are a matter of judicial record, that the federal government can exercise considerable authority over education, even though the principle of state control over education has been deeply established in American life.⁴

¹ United States Constitution, Art. I, Sec. 8; and Art. IV, Sec. 3.

² *Meyer v. State of Nebraska*, 262 U. S. 390, 43 S. Ct. 625, 29 A. L. R. 1446 (1923).

³ *Pierce v. Society of Sisters of the Holy Names of Jesus and Mary*, and *Pierce v. Military Academy*, 268 U. S. 510, 45 S. Ct. 571, 39 A. L. R. 468 (1926).

⁴ See also *Board of Trustees for Vincennes University v. State Board of Indiana*, 14 Howard 268 (1852); *Ervien, Commissioner of Public Lands of the State of New Mexico v. United States*, 251 U. S. 41 (1919); *Romney v. United States*, 136 U. S. (1890); *Gong Lum v. Rice*, 275 U. S. 78 (1927).

FEDERAL-STATE RELATIONS

From another point of view, there is nothing in the Constitution that prohibits Congress from enacting legislation related to education. This fact, together with the definitions of federal authority laid down in Supreme Court decisions, has made possible a steady growth and extension of federal influence on our schools. This influence did not come suddenly; it has evolved through rather well-defined stages historically.

Early Policy

Federal participation in public education actually began with the passage of the Ordinance of 1785. Enacted by the Congress of the Confederation, this ordinance provided that the 16th section of every township in the newly surveyed lands of the west should be set aside "for the maintenance of public schools." Another ordinance followed two years later which recognized the place and importance of schools. It proclaimed that "religion, morality, and knowledge being necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind, schools and the means of education shall forever be encouraged."

In keeping with the precedent established by these ordinances, Congress adopted a definite policy of granting lands to each new state admitted to the union. Regulations were laid down in the enabling acts covering land grants for educational purposes. The admission of Ohio to statehood in 1802 represents the first instance of this policy. The Ohio territory had petitioned Congress for the right to become a state. An enabling act was passed authorizing the voters of the territory to call a convention and to frame a constitution. The enabling act specified that, among other things, Ohio must agree to set aside the 16th section of every township for the use of schools, and "that each and every tract of land sold by Congress . . . shall be and remain exempt from any tax laid by order or under authority of the state, . . . for the term of five years from and after the date of sale." This latter clause, however, suggests that Congress at that time was motivated more by a desire to sell public lands than it was to bring about an early establishment of schools.

Subsequently, the federal government became more generous in the amount of land that it granted for schools. Aid to certain of the western states included two and even four sections in each township. Almost all states admitted to the union after 1800 profited educationally from other types of grants, including saline grants, the five per centum fund, the surplus revenue deposit, the internal improvement act, the swamp land grant, the seminary-township grants, the forest-reserve income grant, and the mineral royalty grants.

In general, no regulations were prescribed regarding the way in which these various forms of aid for education were to be expended. Although this policy of permitting the states to manage their own educational affairs has continued for the most part to the present time, it has been superseded in marked degree by a different type of policy representing the second phase of development in federal-state relations.

Second Policy

A new policy of federal-state relations was born with the passage of the Morrill Act, 1862. The Morrill Act provided that large amounts of public land should be granted to each state for the establishment of an agricultural and mechanic arts college, commonly known as a land-grant college. The act specified how the money was to be used, and called for annual financial reports from each college showing how the money was spent.

The Morrill Act was followed by the Hatch Act of 1887, the second Morrill Act of 1890, and the Smith-Lever Act of 1914. The Hatch Act provided for the maintenance of experiment stations in connection with previously established colleges of agriculture and mechanic arts. It introduced a system of annual money grants or subventions to educational institutions.⁵ The second Morrill Act increased the amount of aid to land-grant colleges and set up more rigid prescriptions for instruction.⁶ The Smith-Lever Act provided for extension work in

⁵ National Advisory Committee on Education, *Federal Relations to Education, Part II, Basic Facts*, p. 38. Washington: National Advisory Committee on Education, 1931.

⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 45.

agriculture and home economics under the direction of the land-grant colleges. The plans for this type of extension work had to be "submitted by the proper officials of each college and approved by the Secretary of Agriculture."⁷

Thus the procedure employed in these acts created essentially a new policy which, since 1862, has more nearly approximated present practice than did the earlier policy of granting aid without specifying the exact use to be made of it, and without restricting the nature of the educational service to be rendered.

Present Policy

The same tendency toward greater control and a more active participation in education was brought out in the Smith-Hughes Act of 1917. The Smith-Hughes Act called for federal financial aid to vocational education at a secondary level in the fields of agriculture, trades and industries, and home economics. It provided further for the training of teachers in vocational subjects. Each state receiving aid was required to match federal money dollar for dollar to cover the training and the salaries of teachers who were certified to handle vocational programs. A Federal Board for Vocational Education was created by the act to work with similar boards in each state. The state boards were authorized to develop plans and execute the details of the program on a state basis. In actuality, state plans must receive federal approval before financial aid is given. Through this arrangement, a federally aided administrative system has been established that is nation wide in scope and locally influential in many aspects of the work carried on in vocational education by secondary schools.

The policy of federal control over vocational education was changed somewhat in the provisions of the George-Deen Act, 1936. This act supplemented the Smith-Hughes appropriation far beyond any previous legislation.⁸ It not only increased the amount of federal money for vocational education but also recognized a new field of vocational training in the distributive occu-

⁷ 38 Stat. 373, Sec. 3.

⁸ George-Reed Act (1929); George-Ellzey Act (1934).

pations. A different arrangement was introduced for matching federal funds with state and local funds. The states and local communities were required only to match 50 per cent of the federal funds expended for distributive education until the year of 1942, and then 10 per cent additional each year thereafter until a maximum of 100 per cent was reached. The act called for dollar for dollar matching in the training of teachers from the beginning of the program.⁹

It should be clear from this discussion of vocational education that teachers who are subsidized under the Smith-Hughes and George-Deen Acts come into a direct relationship with the federal government. Their preparation for teaching, their salary, the program of studies followed, the equipment and instructional materials used, the physical facilities of their classrooms, and the time allotted to vocational subjects daily are prescribed by the federal-state vocational boards and supervised by their field agents. The Advisory Committee on Education pointed out that "the conclusion is inescapable that the Federal control over vocational education has been so administered under the authority of the statutes as to shape very definitely and decidedly the development of the program of vocational education in states and local communities. The federally supported program has to a considerable extent become a federally dictated program in many states."¹⁰

Advisory Committee

The subject of increased federal participation in state and local programs of public education has been a controversial issue for several years. Shortly after the passage of the Morrill Act, the advocates of increased federal activity succeeded in getting legislation passed which created a national Department of Education. They hoped to use this department as a springboard for expanding federal authority in education. Congress was not sympa-

⁹ John Dale Russell and Associates, *Vocational Education*, pp. 21-24, 84. The Advisory Committee on Education, Staff Study No. 8. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1938.

¹⁰ *Ibid.*, p. 46.

thetic to their point of view. When the bill became law in 1867, the powers of the new department were limited mainly to informational and promotional services on behalf of public education. Two years later the department was reduced to an office in the Department of Interior, where it remained until it was placed in the Federal Security Agency.¹¹

Those who favor increased federal participation in public education offer many strong arguments in support of their position. Their case is usually built around (1) glaring inequalities in educational opportunities found among the several states; (2) financial limitations of states and local districts to support sound educational programs; (3) existing racial discriminations in educational opportunities within various states; (4) low salaries paid to teachers; (5) inadequate plant facilities; (6) the inferior quality of instruction carried on in hundreds of school districts; and (7) the lack of prestige that has characterized the teaching profession.

Those who oppose the expansion of federal participation in public education adhere to the principle that education is a function of the state and local school district. They believe that instruction finds its fullest expression when it is constructed around local needs and the interests of people whose children attend community schools. They point to the abuses and misdirection of authority frequently found in centralized governmental bureaus where those charged with administration are remote from the people and indifferent to their wishes. Moreover, they maintain that bureaucracy tends to become highly static, resisting suggestions that make for change essential in any democratic system of public education. The control and direction of education must, according to those who support this position, remain with the people.

The demands for increased federal educational services, and the corresponding opposition that accompanied these demands, became so loud and serious that President Hoover appointed a

¹¹ This was changed to a Bureau of Education in 1870 and made an office of Education again in 1929. It became a part of the Federal Security Agency in 1939.

National Advisory Committee on Education in 1929. The committee, made up of educators and laymen representing various organized educational interests, was asked to study the entire field of federal-state relations and to make recommendations.

Its report was published in two volumes in 1931. These contain a careful and comprehensive account of the historical developments of federal-state relations, the legal aspects of this development, and the conclusions of the committee.¹²

Among the more important conclusions and recommendations made by the committee were the following: (1) Continue the special appropriations for vocational education for at least five years but let the states spend money for vocational purposes without the requirement for matching of monies and without federal authority to approve or reject state plans; (2) amend all existing laws which give or tend to give the federal government power to interfere with the autonomy of states in matters of education; (3) make all future grants to states as grants in aid of education in general, to be spent by the states for education as they deem wise; (4) create an adequate federal office for educational research and information; and (5) increase federal appropriations for educational research and informational service.¹³

No action was taken by Congress on the conclusions and recommendations of the National Advisory Committee on Education because of the serious effects that the economic conditions of the country had upon education at that time.

Five years after this report had been published, President Franklin D. Roosevelt appointed an Advisory Committee on Education. He instructed this committee to study the experience under the existing program of federal aid for vocational

¹² *Federal Relations to Education*. Committee Findings and Recommendations, Part I. Report of the National Advisory Committee on Education. Washington: National Advisory Committee on Education, 1931.

Federal Relations to Education. Basic Facts, Part II. Report of the National Advisory Committee on Education. Washington: National Advisory Committee on Education, 1931.

¹³ *Federal Relations to Education*. Part I, *op. cit.*, pp. 37-39.

education, the relationship of such training to prevailing economic and social conditions, and the extent of the need for an expanded program.

The committee was appointed concurrently with considerations on the George-Deen Bill, which called for increased federal aid to vocational education and the enlargement of the program into the field of distributive occupations. After some study of the problem, the committee advised the President that it could not make a satisfactory report without covering the entire scope of education. As a result, the committee was enlarged in numbers and requested by the President to give a more extended consideration to the whole subject of federal relationships to state and local conduct of education and to prepare a report.

The report of the committee was published as House Document No. 529, 75th Congress, 3rd Session, February 23, 1938. It was issued subsequently as a separate report by the Government Printing Office. The report was supplemented by several technical staff studies giving the data upon which the findings and recommendations of the Committee were based.

Some findings and recommendations of the committee called for (1) increased federal aid for elementary and secondary education; (2) the distribution of federal funds in a manner that would reduce inequalities in elementary and secondary education; (3) an equitable distribution of funds in states maintaining separate schools for whites and Negroes; (4) the use of general aid funds for the purchase of reading materials, transportation, and scholarships for pupils in both public and nonpublic schools; (5) the extension of health and welfare services by local public school systems that received federal aid to pupils attending nonpublic schools; (6) special funds for the improved preparation of teachers; (7) special funds for the construction of school buildings; (8) the extension of adult educational services; (9) library services in rural areas; (10) the revision of statutes that provided federal aid for vocational education; (11) the retention of the United States Office of Education as an agency for re-

search and leadership; (12) the establishment of a special fund for co-operative educational research, demonstrations, and planning, to be administered by the United States Office of Education; and (13) state and local control of education.

Legislation

The findings and recommendations of both advisory committees became the bases for legislation that sought to reduce variations in educational opportunities among states, as well as within states, through the assumption of federal responsibility for financing public education without any departure from the basic principle of state and local control.

One of the most important bills was the Harrison-Fletcher Bill, introduced in Congress in 1933. Although this bill had strong support, it failed to pass. It was amended in 1938, and reintroduced as the Harrison-Thomas-Fletcher Bill. The amended bill contained the major recommendations of the Advisory Committee on Education. Protest against certain provisions of the bill were so strong that two other bills, namely, the Harrison-Thomas Bill and the Larrabee Bill were presented to take its place. Neither of these bills succeeded in passing.

Strong support, developed subsequently for the Thomas Bill (1942), which asked for \$300,000,000 in federal funds for increasing teachers' salaries, lengthening the school term, and reducing overcrowded classes by employing more teachers. This bill contained specific clauses prohibiting federal control over the distribution and use of the funds. It looked as though this bill might have a chance to go through until a nondiscrimination amendment was attached to it. The amendment provided that no discrimination should be permitted in the administration of "the benefits and appropriations made under the respective provisions of this act or in the state funds supplemented thereby on account of race, creed, or color." The amendment was adopted in spite of the opposition to it by certain Negro interests. The supporters of the original bill then referred it back to the Senate Committee on Education where it died.

The fight for federal aid to state and local school systems without federal control has continued unabated. It has been carried on largely under the influence of the Legislative Commission of the National Education Association. Two bills were introduced in the first session of the 80th Congress—S472 and HR2953—again calling for \$300,000,000 a year in federal funds for use in states, with emphasis on those states in greatest need of assistance. Neither bill came up for a vote in the Senate or the House respectively. It is expected that these or similar bills will be the subject of discussion during succeeding sessions of Congress at least until some action is taken.

Although the passage of these bills is somewhat doubtful, it is significant that, in November, 1945, a small group of congressmen formed a committee in the House of Representatives which they called "The House Committee for the Support of Federal Aid for Public Schools." The members of this bipartisan committee have stated publicly that "it is the responsibility of the national government through grants in aid, without federal control, to assist the states that lack financial strength to provide adequate public-school facilities."¹⁴

It would appear that the organization of the house committee is a step forward in bringing the need for federal aid more directly to the attention of Congress. There is likewise a probability that the supporters of federal aid without federal control may come closer to the realization of their purpose. On the other hand, many educational leaders and students of the problem hold to the belief that the federal government will never revert to its earlier policy of grants without control over their use. A third group of educators believe firmly in the idea of increased federal aid with greater federal control. They see in this the only practical means for bringing about the better equalization of educational opportunity. The problem of federal-state relations still remains unsolved; it will continue to be a troublesome issue for some time to come.

¹⁴ "19 More Members of Bipartisan House Committee," *Journal of the National Education Association*, 35:184, April, 1946.

SPECIAL EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS

Federal participation in education increased sharply during the past 15 years. It was increased through legislation passed by Congress for meeting a series of national problems. Critical unemployment conditions in the 1930's gave rise to the Works Progress Administration, the Civilian Conservation Corps, and the National Youth Administration. War in Europe and the subsequent entrance of this country into the recent world conflict brought about a vast vocational training program to supply the men and women needed for operating machinery and feeding production lines in war industries. The end of the war necessitated the establishment of a veterans' education and vocational rehabilitation program. Each of these undertakings has extended federal activity in the field of education.

Works Progress Administration

The Works Progress Administration grew out of the Federal Emergency Relief Administration, established in 1933 to provide public relief to unemployed persons through jobs on public works. Soon after the FERA got under way, it was apparent that manual labor on public works did not meet adequately the employment rehabilitation problem of individuals whose training and skills applied to professional and semiprofessional occupations. The use of funds was authorized by Congress for the hiring of unemployed teachers in rural areas where the lack of money had forced schools to close. Competent unemployed persons were also placed on the government payrolls to teach the reading and writing of English to adults. The financial support for these programs came from the federal government, and the direction of the programs was delegated to the states.

Within a few months after it started, the educational activities of the FERA grew rapidly. The program included vocational training of unemployed adults, vocational rehabilitation of handicapped adults, workers' education classes, nursery schools, resident schools for unemployed women eligible for relief, aid to

small urban schools in financial distress, and a program in parent education.¹⁵

The outlines of a broad education program were plainly established when the Works Progress Administration took over in June, 1935. Its activities were conducted through several divisions, each being assigned a special field of interest. The Division of Education Projects represented one of the largest divisions, although each division carried on an impressive number of significant projects.

The program of the Division of Education Projects covered the following activities: (1) literacy education; (2) naturalization education; (3) public affairs education; (4) academic and cultural education; (5) avocational and leisure time education; (6) vocational education; (7) workers' education; (8) nursery schools; (9) parent education and homemaking; (10) correspondence instructions; (11) Negro education; (12) teacher education; and (13) other educational programs.¹⁶

Complementing this broad educational program were numerous activities handled by other divisions of the WPA. These included recreational programs, the development of playgrounds and athletic fields, the construction of school buildings, school lunches, book binding and repair, projects for the blind, and a number of special activities under the direction of the United States Office of Education.

The cost of the total program amounted to \$708,933,756. Of the total expenditures, \$93,180,790 was used by the Division of Education Projects, \$70,429,656 by the Division of Recreation Projects, and \$131,632,722 for the construction of school buildings.

In making an appraisal of the program, the technical staff of the Advisory Committee on Education pointed out that

The impetus given the education by the emergency program constitutes one of the most significant developments in the his-

¹⁵ Doak S. Campbell, Frederick H. Bair, and Oswald L. Harvey, *Educational Activities of the Works Progress Administration*, pp. 7-8. Advisory Committee on Education, Staff Study No. 14. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1939.

¹⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 28.

tory of the United States. The extent, if any, to which these developments may have been inefficient and excessively costly cannot, unfortunately, be determined.¹⁷

Granting for the moment the value of the WPA to American life, the fact remains that the federal government extended its influence in education to a degree far beyond any it had previously exerted. Had this continued, or should it be revived again at some future time, there is little question but what we would have a national system of education paralleling state and local community systems of public education.

Civilian Conservation Corps

The Civilian Conservation Corps was another emergency project organized in 1933 to take unemployed male youth off the labor market and to utilize their services in the conservation of natural resources. These youth were placed in work camps scattered throughout every state in the union where their labor was turned to the improvement of forests, roads, parks, and eroded lands.

Soon after the CCC got under way, it became apparent that work alone was not sufficient to meet the needs that these young people presented. Less than 16 per cent of those enrolled had completed high school and fewer than 65 per cent had completed elementary school. Quite a few could neither read nor write. The majority did not have any marketable skills they could sell in labor competition. Obviously, some form of educational and vocational training had to be provided for them.

Although the administration of the CCC was assigned to the United States Army, wholesome departures were made in the curriculum and methods of teaching used. In fact, the opinion was generally held among educators who saw the program in operation that it surpassed in quality the typical program found in many American public schools. This is understandable because the program conducted in each camp was tailored to fit the needs of a particular group of youth—a principle long advo-

¹⁷ *Ibid.*, pp. 156-157.

cated but inadequately achieved in the traditional school program.

The favorable impression created by the CCC produced the recommendation that it be continued on a permanent basis. A step was taken in this direction when it was transferred in July, 1939, to the newly created Federal Security Agency. President Roosevelt announced, with the outbreak of war in Europe, that a large training program would be undertaken through the CCC to meet national defense needs. The proposed program was not to be a military one in character but, instead, a program in skilled fields which would give this country a large corps of young men competent to handle the operation and repair of machines and mechanized equipment used in modern warfare. The entrance of this nation in the war, however, brought to a close the activities of the CCC, since the youth in these camps were drafted into the armed services and the original need for the camps no longer existed.

The National Youth Administration

Like the Civilian Conservation Corps, the National Youth Administration was organized to assist needy youth. Two main classes of youth were benefited by the program: (1) those in secondary schools and colleges who wished to continue their education, and (2) those from relief families for whom work experience was valuable. The programs for these two classes of youth were known as the student aid program and the works project program. In addition, the NYA included a junior guidance and placement service, an apprentice-training program, and a number of educational camps for unemployed women.

The NYA was started by an Executive Order in June, 1935, as an agency in the Works Progress Administration, from which it was separated in 1938 and made a part of the Federal Security Agency along with the Civilian Conservation Corps and the United States Office of Education—all youth-serving agencies.

The NYA was directed by a federal administrator appointed by the President. He was assisted by a national advisory committee made up of individuals from education, business, labor,

agriculture, and youth groups. Responsibility was delegated by the federal administrator to state administrators who were assisted by voluntary state advisory committees. The same pattern was followed down into each local community, as is shown in Figure 7, where local advisory committees were given responsibility for planning projects, studying the needs of local youth, sponsoring projects, and promoting the program. This design of decentralized administration was adopted in order to fit the program directly to the varying needs of youth in all parts of the country.

All young people between 16 and 24 years of age were eligible for the benefits of the program, if they could show that they were in need of assistance. But in the case of the out-of-school work program, no one under 18 years of age could be employed, and all youth on any given project had to come from families certified as in need of public assistance.¹⁸

The youth who participated in the student work program applied directly to the head of the school or college which they were attending. They had to satisfy the educational authorities of their need for assistance. They worked on projects and clerical jobs supervised by school and college officials. Students in secondary schools could earn from \$3 to \$6 a month; college students from \$10 to \$20 a month; and graduate students could earn between \$10 and \$30 a month. Wages were fixed on an hourly basis at rates for similar types of work and prevailing wage levels for the particular locality.

The out-of-school work program financially helped the young men and women who had left school and who were unable to find private employment. Their services were used for constructing public buildings; beautifying and improving public parks and grounds around public buildings; laying out recreational areas, constructing and repairing highways, roads, and streets; and conserving soil and forest resources. They worked also as recreation leaders, as assistants in hospitals and clinics,

¹⁸ Where a family income of less than \$1,200 was required to establish eligibility, exceptions were made in cases of large families. The age limits for youth on out-of-school work projects were lowered by two years in 1940, although for 16-year-olds special permission had to be obtained.

ADMINISTRATION

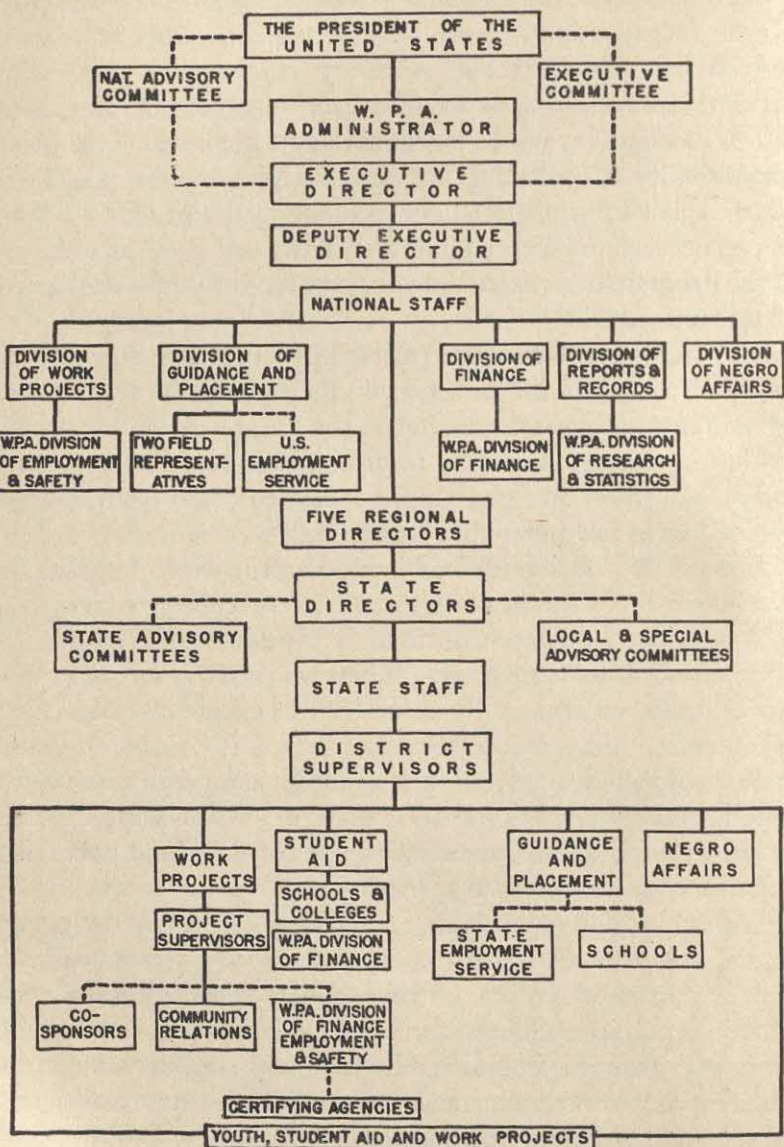


FIGURE 7. The Organization of the National Youth Administration.

and helped where manpower was needed in libraries, museums, and governmental offices.

Whereas the NYA was limited at first by the provisions of the Emergency Relief Appropriation Acts to relief and work for persons in need, the language of the act was changed in 1938 to authorize the expenditure of NYA funds for part-time work and training of young people who were not in regular school attendance. This change made it possible for the NYA to launch an extensive educational program.

A large share of the educational activities of NYA was carried on in resident centers where youth spent about one half of their time on service projects and the other half in attendance at classes. Instruction was given in agriculture, trades and industries, commercial subjects, home economics, health education, social studies, mathematics, and language.

Related training, similar to that carried on under the Smith-Hughes program, was provided for youth who were employed on nonresident projects. The instruction given was related to the kinds of work these youth were doing. Enrollment in these courses was on a voluntary basis.

When the NYA was transferred to the Social Security Agency, the President gave official recognition to the educational function of the NYA. In his letter of transmittal to Congress for approval of the plan to make it a part of the proposed Social Security Agency he said, "It's major purpose is to extend the educational opportunities of the youth of the country and to bring them through the process of training into the possession of skills which enable them to find employment."¹⁹

When the national defense training program was begun in 1940, the need for more trained workers was apparent. An agreement was reached between the National Youth Administration and the United States Commissioner of Education whereby the responsibility for the training of NYA youth was taken over by the school systems of states and the providing of work for wages was handled by the National Youth Administration. The money for the education and training programs

¹⁹ U. S. Senate, *Congressional Record*, 84:6578, April 25, 1939.

was distributed to the states through the United States Office of Education. In actuality, however, the NYA continued to conduct a large program of training on the job as preparation for employment in defense industries.

Although the war closed out the necessity for continuing the NYA, its existence and far-reaching program gave color to the whole issue of federal-state relations. The program made a major contribution to American youth at a time when help was sorely needed. There is also little question that NYA did establish a definite system of education which operated in competition to public schools in local communities. Should the plight of youth again reach such serious proportions as it did when NYA was established, it is highly probable that this agency, or one similar to it, will be revived unless local communities are able to meet their own youth problems.

Defense Training Program

Federal legislation was enacted in June, 1940, setting up a training program for youth and adults in occupations considered essential to the national defense. It called for an immediate expansion and acceleration of training in industrial, agricultural, and related occupational fields.

The law provided for two types of training: (1) supplementary—improving the skills and knowledge of persons already employed in jobs essential to the national defense, or in closely allied occupations; and (2) pre-employment—refresher courses for workers selected from public employment office registers so they might qualify for jobs essential to the national defense.

During the operation of the program, however, several basic types of training were found to be essential to war production which were classified as follows: (1) pre-employment training for unskilled workers; (2) refresher training for those who had some previous experience or training in industrial work; (3) the retraining of those in nondefense industries for employment in defense industries; (4) upgrading training for workers who could assume more responsible positions; and, (5) the training of trainers or experienced workers from various trades for serv-

ice as instructors within their particular branches of industry.

In addition, several other programs related to the war effort were carried on. They included (1) a general pre-employment program for rural and nonrural out-of-school youth and adults who registered at public employment offices; (2) training in machine and hand tool operation for youth enrolled in the NYA work projects program; and (3) vocational training in schools and camps for youth in the Civilian Conservation Corps.

The administration of the national defense training program, which became known as the Vocational Training for War Production Workers program, was placed in the hands of the United States Commissioner of Education. Working on a principle of co-operation at national, state, and local levels, the Commissioner of Education, through his representatives from the Office of Education, maintained close contact with state boards of vocational education which were guided in their work by an approved state plan for defense training.

Before any state could undertake a program with federal financial backing, it had to submit a plan to the United States Commissioner of Education setting forth the standards of teaching and supervision to be followed, the composition of advisory committees, the legal age limits of trainees, the level of instruction, the specific courses to be offered, and an estimated budget of the total costs.

With the approved state plan as a frame of reference, the actual responsibility for implementing the program was given to the local boards of education. They employed the teachers, conducted the courses, procured the necessary supplies and equipment, and administered, through school officials, the numerous details of the program.

Each state board of vocational education appointed a state director who was in charge of the program. He worked in co-operation with local school boards and school officials in facilitating the execution of the program and, at the same time, maintained a direct connection with the United States Office of Education in expediting policies and details that came down from the national office.

On each level—federal, state, and local—lay advisory committees were used for determining policy and blocking out the types of training that were needed for supplying trained workers to war industries. On the national level, for example, the Advisory Commission to the Council of National Defense determined which occupations were essential to national defense. State advisory committees followed these recommendations in shaping the program to fit the production needs of their respective states, determining the number of persons to be trained for each job, the nature of the training to be given, and those to be enrolled in the courses. Local advisory committees followed the same pattern of procedure in adjusting the program to community needs for skilled production workers.

The defense training courses were given in public schools and special buildings taken over by the public schools when greater plant facilities were required for handling the training program. The courses were operated on a round-the-clock basis with shifts of trainees coming at all hours of the day and night. The trainees were then placed on defense jobs as soon as their training had reached a point of efficient performance.

The ESMWT Program

Where the Vocation Training for War Production Workers Program was geared to less than college level, the Engineering, Science, and Management War Training program was designed to supply college courses that would meet the shortage of engineers in fields regarded as essential to the national defense.

The ESMWT program was established by an Act of Congress on October 9, 1940. Although the act designated training in engineering courses only, this provision was broadened subsequently to include chemistry, physics, and production supervision.

Enrollees in the courses were required to be high school graduates or those whose training and experience were the equivalent to high school graduation. But the requirements for particular courses, in many instances, called for engineering de-

grees, and some classes were made up of persons who had earned doctors' degrees.

This program was offered through a total of 238 collegiate institutions. The courses were conducted both on campuses and in local war industries where special training was needed in the fields for which the colleges had been approved. As a result of this service to industry, instruction was carried on in more than 1,000 different cities where defense industries were located. It was given at all hours of the day so as to meet the convenience of the trainees who enrolled in the courses.

War Veterans' Education

In another special program of education, the federal government has been brought into direct relationship with schools in states and local communities through the administration of two laws pertaining to the education of discharged and disabled war veterans. Public Law 346, 78th Congress, which is commonly known as the G. I. Bill of Rights, provides for the training and education of war veterans whose schooling was interrupted because of service in the armed forces of the nation. Public Law 16, 78th Congress, provides for the educational rehabilitation of war veterans who incurred disability during their service in the armed forces of the nation. Both laws contain other provisions, but attention is directed here to their educational features.

Under the G. I. Bill of Rights, a veteran—man or woman—is entitled to receive one year of education at an approved elementary school, secondary school, or college or its equivalent in part-time instruction plus the number of days he was in actual service. The course of training or education must be started not later than four years after discharge from the service or the end of the war, whichever was later. It cannot be extended beyond nine years from the time the war was officially ended, nor can the veteran receive more than four years of training or education as a maximum.

A veteran who is enrolled in an approved school receives an allowance at the present time of \$75 a month with no dependents,

\$105 a month with one dependent, and \$120 a month with more than one dependent. The allowance for part-time schooling is determined on a proportional basis. Besides the allowance for living, his tuition fees, laboratory expenses, textbooks, library charges, supplies, and equipment are paid for up to an amount of \$500 for any regular school year. If, however, the required charges exceed this amount, then the Veterans' Administration will pay the additional charges under the provisions of Public Law 268. According to the terms of this act, the veteran must execute a form which permits the Veterans' Administration to deduct one extra day of his entitlement for each \$2.10 in excess of the \$500 allowed for the school year.

The educational provisions of the rehabilitation act are similar in character to those found in the G. I. Bill of Rights. Under this act the same allowances are granted for schooling, but the pension for disability which the veteran receives is taken into account. As a result, single persons receive a minimum maintenance allowance of \$105 a month; married, but no children, \$115 a month; married, wife and one child, \$125 a month; and \$7 for each additional child and \$15 for each dependent parent. Expenses for tuition, books, supplies, and other items essential to the program of study are paid out of the funds appropriated under the act.

The administration of these programs is vested by law in the Administrator of Veterans' Affairs. He works in co-operation with state departments of public instruction and other agencies useful in supplying information and services to the program. But in no case can he or his agents exercise any supervision or control over a school approved for the education and training of veterans.

THE OFFICE OF EDUCATION

Reference has been made throughout this chapter to the United States Office of Education—an agency in the Federal Security Agency which is directed by a Commissioner of Education who receives his position through presidential appointment for a four-year term of office. The history of this office,

the purpose for which it exists, and the activities carried on by it will be considered in the paragraphs that follow.

History

An act passed by Congress on March 2, 1867 created the first Office of Education. It was called at that time a Department of Education. Its functions were defined by law as those of collecting facts about the conditions and progress of education in the states and territories, disseminating information about the organization and management of schools and the methods of teaching used, and otherwise promoting the cause of education throughout the country.

The Department of Education was changed to the Office of Education in 1869, then made into a Bureau of Education the next year. The Bureau of Education was placed in the Department of the Interior where it remained for several years. In 1929, the Bureau of Education was once again given the title of Office of Education. This office was next transferred to the newly established Federal Security Agency in 1939 where it is today. In this agency, the fields of health, welfare, and education are brought together to promote co-ordination and to avoid the overlapping of responsibilities.

Authority

The original purposes of the Office of Education, as set forth in the original act of Congress, indicate clearly that it should not exercise any administrative authority over education within states and local communities, or even the control of educational activities conducted by the federal government.

However, the authority of the Office of Education has increased since it began. This is particularly true in the general control it now exercises over the land-grant colleges through the distribution of funds under the Morrill Act and the acts that supplement it. It also gained considerable authority over secondary schools when the responsibility for administering funds under the Smith-Hughes and George-Deen Acts was transferred to it in 1933. Because of this transfer of authority, it exercised

control over the training of vocational teachers, the selection and appointment of state directors of vocational education and their assistants, and, through the supervisors from their state offices, an indirect control over local programs of vocational education in secondary schools.

Another expansion in authority took place when the emergency radio and motion picture program was placed in this office. This program has been made a permanent part of its work. At the same time, the centering of NYA, CCC, and the national defense programs stepped up greatly its power and prestige in educational undertakings. Even though the war eliminated these special programs, a new administrative field has been opened through a congressional act which gives to the Office of Education the responsibility for directing a vocational rehabilitation program for "persons disabled in industry or otherwise and their return to civil employment."²⁰ All of these acquired responsibilities are quite different from the purposes for which the office was originated.

Activities

The activities conducted by the United States Office of Education cover several broad fields of service which are important in the development and improvement of education in the United States. According to a staff study made for the Advisory Committee on Education, the United States Office of Education issued from 1932-1936 more than 350 reports of investigations that were made by its staff members either independently or in co-operation with states, universities, local school systems, and other agencies.²¹ Its studies cover nearly all phases of education from statistical reports to the historical treatment of trends in education. The best known, and one of the most useful reports, is the Biennial Surveys of Education, which constitute the most complete source of statistical data about schools that is available in this country.

²⁰ Public Law 113, 78th Congress, Chap. 190, 1st Sess. E.H.R. 2536.

²¹ Charles H. Judd, *Research in the United States Office of Education*. Advisory Committee on Education, Staff Study, No. 19. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1939.

The Office of Education carries on several other worth-while activities with which teachers should be familiar. These activities cover (1) conferences for the group study of important educational problems, (2) advisory services both in Washington and in local areas, (3) demonstrations of radio use in education, (4) adult education forums and the techniques for conducting them, (5) programs in vocational education, (6) occupational studies useful in vocational guidance programs, and many others which can be readily determined through direct correspondence with the Office of Education, the reading of its official publications, and the printed materials issued monthly either through the office itself or through the Government Printing Office.

Any teacher who studies the work done by the Office of Education will readily admit the important role that it plays in American education. He will also recognize the extent to which its influence has spread and the impact which this has upon the basic issue of federal-state relations.

TEACHER RELATIONSHIPS

This discussion of federal-state relations has made it evident that education is no longer an exclusive function of the state and a responsibility of the local community. Supreme Court decisions and acts of Congress have steadily increased the participation of the federal government in education, and there is every reason to believe that it will become greater in the future. In consequence, several forms of direct and indirect relationships with the classroom teacher have been developed. They should be understood and examined carefully so that their benefits may be utilized and their value considered in shaping opinion about the role of the federal government in the program of public education of tomorrow.

A summary of the relationships between the teacher and the federal government includes many aspects of education. Decisions of the United States Supreme Court guarantee the right of the teacher to pursue his profession. The constitutional authority of the national government to set aside lands and to grant special forms of aid for schools resulted in the building of per-

manent trust funds from which a part of the teacher's salary is being paid in some states today. The teacher may have received his professional preparation in a land-grant college that was established under the Morrill Act. If the teacher specialized in agriculture, trades and industries, home economics, or distributive education, his college training was controlled by the federal government in those institutions of higher learning where federal money supports these programs.

If it is assumed that the teacher was graduated from a college subsidized under the Smith-Hughes or George-Deen Acts, the school system where he is employed as a specialist in vocational education has likewise complied with federal regulations. It has to meet precise standards relating to the courses of study taught, instructional materials used, equipment needed, teacher certification, and clock hours scheduled for vocational and related subjects in order to receive reimbursement from federal-state funds for 50 per cent or more of the teacher's salary. Moreover, this teacher is visited periodically by a supervisor from the state vocational education office who sees that the federal-state policies are being followed.

Even though the teacher has nothing to do with the vocational program described above, the very building in which his classroom is located may have been constructed with federal and local funds, and the murals decorating the corridor walls may have been painted there by unemployed artists during the depression years as one of the WPA projects. Similarly, the playground adjoining the school may have come into existence through the efforts of the national government to create work for individuals who needed employment a few years ago.

Many teachers were among the unemployed when Congress started the Federal Emergency Relief Administration. They were hired by the government to give vocational training to adults who were out of work; conduct special classes for workers, parents, and unemployed women who were eligible for relief; teach naturalization and literacy classes; conduct public affairs forums; supervise correspondence study; direct avocational and leisure-time activities; and take part in other educa-

tional programs including the NYA and the CCC. In many of these programs, they were working in direct competition with state and local programs of education.

During the war years, teachers came again within the sphere of federal influence, especially through vocational training classes for war production workers. These classes were organized with federal approval and paid for from federal funds, although the local school system in which they were given exercised administrative control over the program once it had been approved by the federal government.

Now the federal government is administering two laws for the education of returned veterans. The cost of this program is being borne by the federal government through the payment of tuition and other expenses incidental to attendance at school. Indirectly, then, some of the salary paid to teachers who have these veterans in their classes is coming from the federal government.

A more direct influence on the work of the teacher may be traced to the activities of the United States Office of Education which have increased a great deal since the office was established in 1869. The Morrill Act gave to it control over the distribution of funds to land-grant colleges, and subsequent legislation permitted the exercise of authority over secondary schools under the Smith-Hughes and George-Deen Acts. Its surveys, made independently and in co-operation with state and local school systems, bear directly upon policies administered by school officials. Contributions to the work done in local school systems are likewise made through the studies, special reports, and official publications of the Office of Education together with the informational services used by teachers and the packets of material loaned for classroom use. Teachers also profit from the radio programs sponsored by this agency, its catalogue of educational films, and the conferences and forums operated by members of the staff.

Certainly, any teacher who reviews critically his relationships to the federal government asks himself whether these relationships will become even more numerous in the future, and whether

they should become so in the interest of the millions of children and youth who attend our public school?

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Chapter 3

THE STATE GOVERNMENT

WITH SOME understanding of the relationship of the federal government to public education, we now turn to the state as the principal authority for the administration of the American school system. To say that the state is the principal authority in education means that the people have delegated to the legislature the responsibility for the establishment and maintenance of a system of public schools, and that they have recognized the universal importance of education in a democratic society. Legislatures in various states have carried out this responsibility by creating, for the administration of schools, both a state educational organization and various types of local school units. It is the relationship of the teacher to the state educational organization that constitutes the central thought of this chapter.

THE AUTHORITY OF THE STATE

The authority of the state over public education is derived from state constitutional provisions, statutes, and judicial decisions. Taken together, this body of law shapes the organization and governs the operation of each state school system throughout the United States.

Constitutional Provisions

The Tenth Amendment to the federal Constitution left to the states the right to organize systems of public education, subject to such restrictions as were stipulated in the enabling acts of Congress and the special grants that were made. General clauses were written into the early state constitutions providing

for public education. Many of these clauses were mere expressions of a sentiment concerning the importance of education similar to that expressed in the Ordinance of 1787.¹ With each subsequent constitutional revision in the several states, the language of these clauses became more explicit regarding the role of the state in public education.

The constitution of Pennsylvania, for example, provides that "the General Assembly shall provide for the maintenance and support of a thorough and efficient system of public schools, wherein all the children of the Commonwealth above the age of six years may be educated, and shall appropriate at least one million dollars each year for that purpose." This mandate for schools is followed by clauses that give to the legislature power to classify districts for school purposes, restrict the use of public funds for education to public schools, and provide for normal schools. Other state constitutions have clauses related to the state board of education, the chief state school officer, the department of public instruction, the lease and rental of state school lands, state textbooks, certification of teachers, control of normal schools, and a number of miscellaneous provisions.

Since these provisions leave no doubt about the authority of the state over public education, what then is the place of the local school system which most people associate with the control and management of public schools? In actual practice, state legislatures have seen fit to delegate to local school districts large responsibility for the operation of their schools, and to create for the entire system a state department of education with general oversight of the state educational program. Though a local school district may employ its own teachers, build its own buildings, construct its own program of instruction, devise its own materials and teaching methods, and otherwise administer in a hundred ways its particular educational needs, it is but a subordinate part of a state system of schools and not an autonomous educational organization. The legislature, under authority granted to

¹ "Religion, morality, and knowledge being necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind, schools and the means of education shall be forever encouraged."

it by the state constitution, can change the status of a school district at will.

Statutes

Legislatures have passed laws in every state which call for the establishment, maintenance, and operation of public schools. These laws include numerous mandatory requirements which define specifically what must be done to promote and carry forward the minimum program of the state. In point, a Pennsylvania school law requires that "in all school districts there shall be admitted to the public high schools therein all children under the age of twenty-one years, residing within the school district, who shall be found qualified for admission thereto." Such a law assures that every normal child shall have the right to a high school education.

The laws passed by legislatures also include broad delegations of power to school districts which they may exercise under certain conditions. For example, in Pennsylvania "the board of school directors in any two or more school districts may establish, construct, equip, furnish, and maintain joint elementary public schools, high schools, or any other kind of schools or departments provided for in this act." Laws of this kind, known sometimes as permissive laws, enable local school units to experiment with education and to make better adaptations of instruction to peculiar local needs and interests. In many ways, the delegation of authority to local school units has been responsible for the development of variations of educational practices which give to American education many of its unique characteristics.

The school laws of each state are usually found in a compilation known as the *school code*, which classifies systematically legislative enactments governing the organization, standards, and administration of schools. Some conception of the nature and scope of a typical school code may be obtained from its table of contents. Included in this table of contents will be found such headings as school districts; election of school directors; school finances; buildings and grounds; books, furniture, and supplies; school directors' associations; superintendents; teachers, supervi-

sors, and principals; certification of teachers; school attendance; courses of study; public school libraries; state school fund; and others. Under each of these headings subdivisional classifications are listed together with the numbers of specific sections where the full text of each related law may be found.

Judicial Decisions

Although school codes represent the ruling body of law governing education within respective states, their provisions are subject to critical review by state courts. Any section, paragraph, or clause inconsistent with or in contradiction to the state constitution is declared unconstitutional, hence invalid.

Many cases have arisen involving the meaning and interpretation of particular statutes, and especially those related to the power of local communities to exercise jurisdiction over their own school system. State courts have held consistently that education is a function of the state, and that local school units are merely agencies operating with the consent and authority of the state. An example of this is found in a Kentucky case where the trustees of the Stanton graded school district entered into a contract with the Board of Church Extension of the United Presbyterian Church of America whereby Stanton College leased to the graded school district two rooms in its building. Supervision of the graded school was turned over to the president of the sectarian school. It was further agreed that the trustees should keep up repairs and incidental expenses attached to the building and grounds in consideration of its use. No money was paid to the president of the college, the college itself, or its teachers. However, two of the graded school teachers were hired by the president and paid from district school funds.

It was contended that the contract between the college and the graded school district was not unconstitutional, for no portion of the school funds was paid to the president or teachers of the college. In answer to this contention the court said it was not necessary to show that any portion of the common school money was paid to the sectarian school, inasmuch as the constitution prohibited not only payments of public funds to sectarian insti-

tutions but also any agreement between a common school and a sectarian school. Referring specifically to the contract in question the court said:

To authorize the validity of this arrangement . . . would be to encourage the creation of other like arrangements between other graded and common schools and other sectarian institutions . . . such a course would surely create deep and bitter resentment and dissatisfaction among many people and in many parts of the state, and result in a lasting injury to the common school system.²

In a case even more directly in point on the question of state control over local school districts, the Supreme Court of Indiana held that the township trustees must distribute textbooks selected by the state board of education. In objecting to the statute which required the trustees to carry out the act, it was argued that such a statute violated the right to local self-government. In answer to this argument, the court took the position that:

Essentially and intrinsically the schools . . . are matters of State, and not local jurisdiction . . . the State is the unit, and the Legislature the source of power. It is for the law-making power to determine whether the authority shall be exercised by a State board of education, or distributed to county, township, or city organizations throughout the State.³

Many other issues involving the interpretation of statutes and the right of the state to control public education have arisen in connection with teachers' contracts, loyalty oaths for teachers, child labor laws, sabbatical leave, tenure, uses of school funds, rights of parents over children, dismissal of children for weekday religious instruction, attendance, powers of school districts, taxation, and numerous others. And in all instances where the higher state courts have ruled on questions of law their decisions

² *Williams v. Board of Trustees of Stanton Common School District*, 173 Kentucky 708, 191 S. W. 507, L. R. A. 1917 D 453.

³ *State v. Haworth*, 122 Ind. 462, 23 N.E. 946, 7 L. R. A. 240.

have become the basic principles under which the state school system has operated.

STATE EDUCATIONAL ORGANIZATION

Administrative machinery is provided in the school laws of each state for carrying out the state education function. Although the machinery varies in many details among the different states, the pattern is essentially the same. Local school districts are delegated by law the responsibility for the operation of their own schools, whereas the general oversight for the entire program is placed in the hands of state administrative agencies consisting of a state board of education, a chief state school officer, and the staff of specialists working under the chief state school officer in a department of education or public instruction.

State Board of Education

The first state board of education, similar to those in existence today, was founded in Massachusetts in 1837. The excellent results achieved by this board and its first secretary, Horace Mann, stimulated other states to follow suit, and by the last quarter of the nineteenth century a state board of education was recognized as an important part of the administrative machinery necessary for the running of a state school system.

At present, 39 of the 48 states have boards of education with functions relating to the elementary and secondary schools.⁴ It is, of course, quite possible to conceive of an effective administrative organization which would not involve a board of control. However, such a body serving largely in a legislative capacity is in line with governmental practice in the United States.

The work performed by early state boards of education was limited for the most part to clerical tasks and advisory service to the chief state school officer, where such an officer existed. In

⁴ U. S. Office of Education, *Statistics of State School Systems, 1939-40 and 1941-42*. Biennial Survey of Education, Vol. II, Chap. III. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1944. The states which do not have state boards of education are Illinois, Iowa, Maine, Nebraska, North Dakota, Ohio, Rhode Island, South Dakota, and Wisconsin.

time, the concept of the state board changed. The position was taken early that such a body should assume responsibility for administering, in all details, the operation of the state school system, and that this work should be properly performed in proportion as the board was composed of trained schoolmen. This conception has been revised so that today the state board of education is regarded as an advisory body whose principal functions are those of planning, interpreting state laws, and appraising the effectiveness of the state program; administrative details are cared for by the chief school officer and his staff.

The members of state boards of education are appointed to office by the governor in a majority of states where boards exist. Some boards, in whole or in part, are made up of *ex officio* members, i.e., those who by virtue of some political office they hold are automatically members of the state board of education. Only four states have boards which are elected by popular vote.

All state boards of education have control over elementary and secondary education, and in almost one half of the states they exercise authority over teachers colleges and normal schools. In a few states their jurisdiction extends to other state colleges, including the state university. Besides these general types of control, some boards exercise wide powers. The state board of education in Virginia, for example, acts as the board for vocational education, passes upon plans for apportionment of school funds, appoints the state library board, sets up the scope of authority for divisional superintendents, selects textbooks for the schools of the state, and prescribes the system of financial accounting that schools must follow throughout the state.

Although the influence of the state board of education seems far removed from the work of the classroom teacher, actually there is a definite relationship between the two in many states. Certification requirements, state-adopted textbooks, state-prescribed courses of study, the apportionment of state funds, policies of the state department of education, and the administrative interpretation of school laws are determined by the state board of education.

The State Superintendent

The office of state superintendent of schools first made its appearance near the beginning of the nineteenth century, but it was not until 1829 that there was established a chief state school office comparable to those now in existence. This office, like the state board of education, had its beginning in the early assignment of certain educational duties to the state school officials of that day. But it is only in recent years that the position has come to be looked upon as a distinctly professional one deserving the entire attention of a professionally trained individual. Each of the 48 states provides for a chief state school officer who is known as a state superintendent of public instruction, a commissioner of education, a superintendent of education, or a secretary of the state board of education.

The chief state school officer is elected to his position by popular vote in 32 states, chosen by the state board of education in eight states, and appointed by the governor in eight states.⁵ The qualifications for holding office are largely in terms of preparation, certification, and teaching experience. Some states require that the superintendent be a college graduate, whereas others specify a background of educational experience. Once elected or appointed, he holds office for a term of four years in 25 states, comes up for re-election every two years in 13 states, and enjoys indefinite tenure in four states.⁶ For his services, he usually receives an average annual salary of between \$5,000 and \$7,000. In one state, however, he receives less than \$3,000 a year and in two states he receives more than \$15,000 a year.⁷

Sound opinion among authorities in educational administration holds that the state superintendent should be a trained executive responsible to the state board of education for the effective organization, management, and leadership of the state school system. Schrammel, writing on this subject twenty years ago, expressed the viewpoint that is current today:

⁵ Walter D. Cocking and Charles H. Gilmore, *Organization and Administration of Public Education*, p. 80. The Advisory Committee on Education, Staff Study No. 2. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1938.

⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 82.

⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 83.

The commissioner of education should be appointed by the state board of education on the basis of scholarship, experience, and general fitness for the position. The first appointment should be probational and for a term long enough—not less than five years—to demonstrate the official's fitness for the position. Reappointment should then follow for an indefinite term, but the board should retain the right to remove the incumbent from office for misfeasance or malfeasance. Under such a permanent organization the state commissioner of education could raise the state school system to a high point of administrative efficiency. This office, however, cannot expect to attract really strong men until it pays a salary commensurate with the importance and dignity of the office.⁸

The importance of Schrammel's statement is brought out upon examination of the duties assigned to the state superintendent in Nebraska, where his authority is narrow; and in Maryland, where his power is broad.⁹ In Nebraska, he is required by law:

1. To organize teachers normal institutes; provide instructors for the same; improve efficiency of teachers.
2. To visit schools and witness and advise teachers and school officers.
3. To decide disputed points in school law; his decisions to have the force of law until reversed by the courts.
4. To prescribe forms for reports and regulations for all proceedings under general school laws.
5. To cause to be printed school laws and laws relating to school lands and to furnish county superintendents with sufficient copies.
6. To submit annually a report of operations of his office to the governor.
7. To cause the annual report to be printed at the commencement of each regular session of the legislature and distributed to certain persons.
8. To make apportionment seminannually of the funds in the

⁸ Henry E. Schrammel, *The Organization of State Departments of Education*, p. 151. Bureau of Educational Research Monographs, No. 6. Columbus, Ohio: The Ohio State University Press, 1926.

⁹ Walter D. Cocking and Charles H. Gilmore, *op. cit.*, pp. 79-80.

treasury based upon claims filed for tuition; to make provisions for counties with undeeded school land; to investigate appeals for reappraisement of school land.

In Maryland, the state superintendent is assigned the following duties:

1. To attend meetings of the state board of education and its committees and to act as secretary to the board.
2. To act as treasurer under bond of the state board of education.
3. To nominate all professional and clerical assistants of the state department of education.
4. To enforce school laws and execute educational policies.
5. To examine accounts of county boards of education.
6. To approve purchase or sale of school property; plans and specifications for buildings; and contracts for construction.
7. To certify all teachers, supervisors, attendance officers, and county superintendents.
8. To approve the appointment of county superintendents and county school supervisory officials.
9. To advise county superintendents of unemployed teachers.
10. To prepare courses of study.
11. To direct the taking of the biennial school census.
12. To prepare an annual school report and other reports.
13. To inspect high schools.
14. To inspect Negro industrial schools.
15. To cause the state comptroller to withhold school appropriations.
16. To act as a member of the board of trustees of the teachers retirement system of the state.
17. To call and conduct conferences of school officials, supervisors, and teachers.
18. To prepare and publish pamphlets to stimulate public interest and promote the work of education.
19. To keep records of the academic and professional preparation of teachers.

20. To furnish additional facilities for instruction in geography, history, science, and related subjects.

21. To certify quarterly amounts due the city of Baltimore and the several counties from the general state school fund.

Only a few state superintendents have as much authority as that given to the chief state school officer in Maryland. The majority, however, have more authority than the amount assigned to the superintendent of public instruction in Nebraska. In general, this officer is in a position to exert tremendous influence upon the educational policies of the state.

The Department of Public Instruction

To assist the state superintendent in carrying out the duties assigned to him by law and by the state board of education, departments of public instruction or education have been developed with numerous staff officials in charge of the various activities that are conducted for the benefit of the public schools. Some idea of how these departments are organized may be gotten from the charts showing the organizations of Maryland and Pennsylvania in Figures 8 and 9, respectively.

Some of the divisions that appear most frequently in state department organization are the office of assistant superintendent, vocational education, vocational rehabilitation, high school supervision, elementary and rural school supervision, certification, teacher training, research and statistics, school buildings and grounds, finance, attendance, public relations, and library service. The particular staff officers provided vary from state to state, the number and type of departments being determined by the particular needs of the state, the financial support given education, and the peculiar ideas of the board and state superintendent.

The state superintendent selects, generally with the approval of the state board of education, a staff of specialists and delegates to them those aspects of the work for which they are especially fitted by training and experience. In too many instances, however, staff personnel are appointed for political reasons instead of competence for the work. This practice has reduced the effec-

tiveness of many state departments and it has kept men of real ability and high ethical standards out of these positions. Such men refuse to be obligated to the party in power or to make financial contributions to party campaign funds in order to hold their positions. Fortunately, there are some state departments relatively free from the incubus of patronage so that men with

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
STATE OF MARYLAND

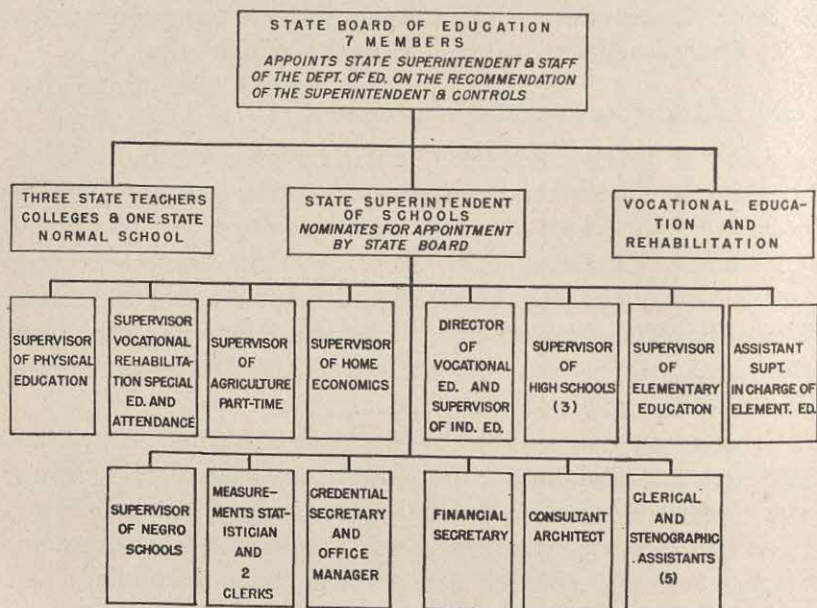


FIGURE 8. Organization of the Maryland State Department of Education.

thorough training and demonstrated fitness accept staff positions that enable them to exercise real leadership in the state program of public education.

STATE EDUCATIONAL ACTIVITIES

According to the study by Cocking and Gilmore,¹⁰ a state department of public instruction has six major functions to per-

¹⁰ Walter D. Cocking and Charles H. Gilmore, *op. cit.*, pp. 84-85.

DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION COMMONWEALTH OF PENNSYLVANIA

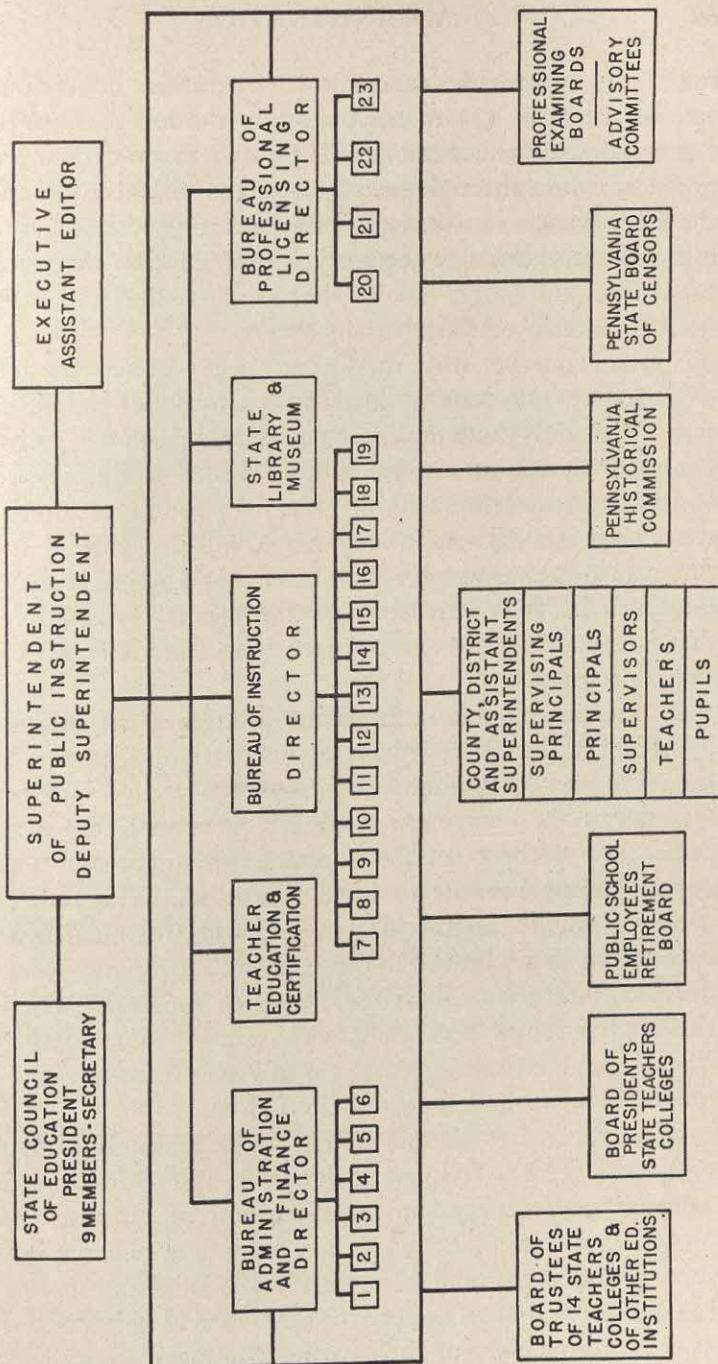


FIGURE 9. Organization of the Pennsylvania State Department of Public Instruction.

form: (1) to provide leadership for the entire educational system of the state; (2) to assist those in the local school units in the solution of education problems; (3) to co-ordinate educational activities throughout the state; (4) to aid in determining the effectiveness of the state's program of education; (5) to direct research activities necessary to the solution of educational problems; and (6) to advise the governor and the legislature with respect to educational legislation.

Stated in another way, there are a variety of activities descriptive of the work done by a state department of public instruction. Certainly, one important activity is that of determining, from the viewpoint of the entire state, the needs and problems basic to the development of schools. Sound planning for a state, both immediate and long range, calls for careful and continuous research through which facts are gathered, analyzed, and interpreted. It is only through the means of sound research that satisfactory plans can be made for a functional state educational program.

In outstanding state educational programs, careful provision is made for the improvement of instruction, adequate finance, functional school buildings, the total welfare of children, safe transportation, competent teaching personnel, the health of pupils and teachers, suitable supplies and equipment, and other considerations essential to good education. The state department of public instruction, in addition, formulates uniform accounting procedures, requires specific information from local districts, interprets educational needs to the legislature, directs the teacher tenure and retirement systems, issues teaching certificates, and exercises general control over institutions for juvenile delinquents and exceptional children.

It is expected to assume leadership in promoting educational progress. This is frequently done through sponsoring and organizing conferences for the discussion of current problems, providing special advisory services, publishing research studies, issuing practical pamphlets for the use of administrators and teachers, and serving as an agency to stimulate and assist local districts in the improvement of their own educational programs.

Besides these services, the department of public instruction is required in all states to administer the laws pertaining to the distribution and apportionment of state funds, building safety, transportation, school board regulations, and in some states to supervise the issuance of all state licenses for professional and nonprofessional personnel ranging from medical practitioners to barbers. In the performance of these duties and responsibilities, the state department of public instruction may wield tremendous power.

The extent to which state authority is exercised over local educational programs differs throughout the country. There is no doubt about an increase in state authority over the last 25 years, particularly in the fields of finance, certification, supplies, retirement, tenure, sabbatical leave, and salaries. Although the movement toward the centralization of greater control in the department of public instruction has been concentrated more in the southern states, it will undoubtedly continue to spread, especially in relation to the size of appropriations made for the equalizing of educational opportunities.

Strong objection is taken to the increase of state control over public education on grounds that it violates the fundamental rights of local communities to determine their own programs in terms of their own peculiar needs and interests; and that it leads ultimately to autocracy in state administration—a condition that is antagonistic to the wishes and welfare of people in a democratic society. On the other hand, a real case is built around the glaring inequalities in educational opportunities found among various school districts within any given state, and the inability of many school districts to support instructional programs that are economically and educationally sound. It is generally agreed that the assistance of the state is needed in creating a better system of school finance.

THE TEACHER AND THE STATE

The growing tendency toward increased state control over public education makes it more important than ever that the teacher understand the nature of his relationship to the state edu-

cational authority. He should be intelligently informed about the activities of the state and the influence it exerts over his professional life.

Certification

The certification laws in all states assure the licensing of teachers who have undergone a program of training for specific educational responsibilities. The administration of these laws is usually placed in the state department of public instruction or allocated by law to the state board of education. In a few states, institutions of higher learning retain the right to issue certificates, and in only one state the authority is shared with certain local school districts.

In the past, licenses to teach were based largely upon written examinations, a practice which still persists in a few states. This plan of granting certificates has given way to the plan of issuing them on the strength of college credentials alone, except in vocational fields where particular types of work experience may also be required. This arrangement calls for the close co-operation of local school administrators, the state department of public instruction, and the teacher-training institutions. They determine the amount and nature of the work required and recommend the issuance of certificates which are in accord with the laws of the state and the rulings of the state board of education.

Several different kinds of certificates are issued throughout the country. They may qualify the holder to teach in the subject fields, grades, or educational divisions named on the face of the certificate, and in any school system of the state. A few of the so-called "blanket" certificates still exist in some states. These certificates grant to the holder the right to teach without limiting the use of the certificate. The specialized certificate, in contrast, indicates the exact type of work for which the teacher has been prepared and restricts his employment to the particular division, grades, or subjects named.

Teaching certificates are frequently classified on the basis of quality and duration of the license. Since the tendency is to-

ward higher standards of certification, differentiation in types of certificates has become a common practice. In some states, certificates are labeled as class A or class B, first class or second class, first grade or second grade, limited or permanent, and provisional or college permanent. The certificates of lower grade are granted on minimum amounts of preparation, or they may cover a definite probationary period after which application for a higher certificate may be made. The highest grade of certificate reflects the most advanced standard which the educational leaders of the state have been able to enact into law.

A teaching certificate at best is nothing more than a license issued by the state, and it is subject to any conditions prior to or after its issuance which the state considers essential to its active use.

Contractual Obligations

Local boards of education are permitted by law in all states, and required by law in some states, to sign contracts with the teachers whom they employ. These contracts, as a rule, contain the names of the parties, the salary to be paid, the term of the contract, the grade or subjects to be taught, and the general requirements that teachers are expected to uphold in the course of their employment. Among others, teachers are expected to carry out the rules and regulations of the school board and to perform all duties prescribed by the laws of the state.

The duties required of teachers by the state concern certain administrative responsibilities, the curriculum of the school, and the professional activities of the teacher. Although the duties that the teacher must perform vary from state to state, in general those of an administrative character may be listed as follows: (1) keeping accurate records of pupils in daily attendance; (2) reporting pupils who are absent or tardy; (3) reporting pupils who are truants; (4) reporting pupils who drop out of school; (5) reporting pupils who are new entrants to the school; (6) reporting pupils who transfer within the school system; (7) making periodic summary reports on special child accounting forms provided by

the state; (8) checking the sight and hearing of pupils; (9) keeping systematic inventories of school property used for instructional purposes; (10) using state-adopted textbooks; and (11) enforcing the rules and regulations of the board of education.

With reference to the state requirements concerning the school curriculum, several states make it mandatory that the teacher (1) read the Bible daily without comment; (2) follow the established course of study; (3) supervise fire drills and teach fire prevention; (4) hold exercises in observance of special days; (5) teach health education with special reference to the use of alcohol and narcotics; (6) teach certain ideas considered basic to good citizenship; and (7) give instruction in certain subjects which have been written into law at the insistence of various vested-interest groups.

At the same time, the school code may require that each teacher (1) take annually an oath of allegiance to support the United States Constitution, (2) abstain from wearing any dress, garb, or insignia in school which indicates membership in a religious sect or society; (3) attend annually institutes or conferences of teachers; (4) contribute to the teachers' retirement fund; (5) refuse to act as an agent for any school publishing or supply company; (6) undergo annually a physical health examination; (7) file the certificate to teach with the proper school authorities, and (8) abide fully by the terms of the teaching contract for the period of its duration. The impressive list of contractual obligations imposed by law upon the teacher describes further the relationship of the teacher and the state.

Salary

In looking at public education from the viewpoint of the state, it is obvious that all school facilities have been organized and developed exclusively for the purpose of making teaching possible. In many communities, the lack of funds and the lack of social imagination have denied to children the right to good teaching because low salaries do not attract or hold competent teachers. In view of this fact, 26 of the 48 states have minimum-salary laws that fix the amount of money below which no qualified teacher

may be employed.¹¹ In the District of Columbia, Hawaii, and Puerto Rico, however, unified systems of education exist where all salaries are established by statute.

In states having minimum salary laws, the classification of salary standards differ. Eight states have one flat-rate minimum; eight provide two or more flat rates, but no annual increments for experience; and 11 states have minimum schedules that guarantee increments for experience.¹² In California, no teacher at present may be paid less than \$1,800 during the school year. In Georgia, on the other hand, the law provides flat-rate monthly salaries for 16 different kinds of certificates. A more advanced schedule is recognized in Utah where beginning salaries are classified according to three levels of preparation, and annual raises in pay are guaranteed for at least 16 years.

Even though these amounts of salary are fixed by law, the problem of attracting and holding competent personnel in teaching is difficult when the income from other fields of work requiring comparable preparation is taken into account. But it is expected that local school districts shall establish their own schedules starting at a figure in excess of that set by the state. Many communities do have salary schedules that go considerably above the state standards, but unfortunately the majority of school districts tend to follow the state schedule.

State financial aid is given to many local school districts for the payment of teachers' salaries both in states with or without minimum-salary schedules. In Maryland, for example, when the amount of money raised from a county levy, plus other forms of state aid, does not equal the amount needed for maintaining the state minimum schedule, the difference is supplied by the state. In other states, aid for salaries may be the full amount of the state minimum standard, a percentage of the total, a fixed amount per teacher, or an apportionment which supplements local revenues in order to equalize the minimum-salary standard. Thus through the means of minimum salary laws and the distribution

¹¹ Committee on Tenure and Academic Freedom, *State Minimum-Salary Standards for Teachers*, 1944, p. 7. Washington: National Education Association, 1944.

¹² *Ibid.*, p. 10.

of state aid to local districts, the state and the teacher are brought into another type of relationship.

Tenure

Laws have likewise been passed in a number of states granting tenure to teachers. Tenure guarantees that the teacher, after serving a probationary period of a certain number of years, cannot be dismissed except for a few specific reasons, and then only after a hearing at which he is permitted to present evidence in his own defense.

Tenure laws came into existence primarily to decrease turnover and to free the teacher from unnecessary worry about holding his position. Tenure is based upon the assumption that more effective teaching will take place, especially in communities where unprofessional practices have been followed by superintendents and boards of education in the selection and dismissal of teachers.

The growth in tenure legislation has been increasing rapidly, according to a Research Bulletin of the National Education Association:

In 1924, 37 states had no tenure legislation; 11 provided some kind of protection to teachers. Only three of these offered unqualified state-wide protection, two extended protection to teachers in all school districts except the largest metropolitan areas which had local tenure regulations, and the remaining six states defined specific districts in which teacher tenure was to be assured . . .

Today 19 states and Alaska have no state tenure laws; 29 and Hawaii have either tenure laws or provision for long term contracts. Six and Hawaii provide permanent tenure after a probationary period; ten grant tenure in certain districts; seven provide for continuing contracts; five permit the signing of contracts for more than one year periods, at least in certain districts; one allows local citizens to vote permanent tenure in each district.¹³

¹³ *The Status of the Teaching Profession*, p. 65. Research Bulletin, National Education Association, Vol. XVIII, No. 2. Washington: Research Division, National Education Association, March, 1940.

Besides the territory of Hawaii, the six states which have permanent tenure on a state-wide basis are Louisiana, Maryland, Massachusetts, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Wisconsin. Teachers in these states are assured of their employment after probationary periods ranging from one to five years, providing their service is efficient and their professional conduct satisfactory.

There are many arguments for and against permanent tenure for teachers which will be considered fully in a later chapter. Regardless of what the arguments may be, tenure legislation represents a relationship between the teacher and the state which is regarded as a contribution to education.

Sabbatical Leave

Sabbatical leave is another means adopted for the improvement of teachers in service. They are granted a leave of absence from their classroom duties for a semester or a year so that they may study, travel, or restore their health. It is expected that such a leave, when used for the purposes listed, will make the teacher a more effective individual, though little evidence is available to support this contention. Positive results have been shown in one study, however, of the returns from the operation of sabbatical leave law in Pennsylvania.¹⁴

Pennsylvania and California are the only states where state-wide provision for sabbatical leave has been made. In California, local boards of education are permitted to grant leaves of absence for study or travel. The Pennsylvania law requires that leaves of absence must be granted to teachers after ten years of service for study, travel, or the restoration of health. The teacher who is on leave there receives the difference between the regular salary and the amount paid to his substitute, providing it is not in excess of \$1,600 for the school year.

City school systems have granted leaves of absence for many years. In 1940-1941, 71 per cent of the 1,185 cities covered in a study by the Research Division of the National Education As-

¹⁴ J. Leslie Ellis, *An Evaluation of Sabbatical Leave in Pennsylvania*. Philadelphia: Stephenson-Brothers, 1945.

sociation reported that extended leaves of absence were granted for professional improvement,¹⁵ and 21 per cent provided some salary during the leave. Other cities recognized the value of summer school attendance, part-time attendance at colleges and universities, and travel through additional salary increments. It is quite possible that many of these cities have been stimulated by the statutory provisions of California and Pennsylvania in establishing systems of sabbatical leave for teachers and that other states may enact similar legislation.

Retirement

More concern has been shown by state legislatures for the retirement of teachers than for the granting of sabbatical leaves. Teachers are protected by state-wide retirement plans in 44 states and Hawaii, and by state-wide pension plans in three additional states making a total of 47 states which have adopted this means to improve educational services.¹⁶ Under a retirement or a pension plan, teachers who have become disabled or who are no longer capable of rendering effective service because of advanced age are required to give up their teaching responsibilities. They then receive a monthly income which is based on the deposits they have made and which is usually related in some proportion to the final salary. In many cases the deposits of the teacher are supplemented by appropriations from the state in order to make the retirement allowance higher than it otherwise would be.

In addition to state provisions made for the retirement of teachers, many local school systems have established their own plan for retirement in accordance with permissive laws of the state, by special legislation for individual cities or districts, or by city charters and school board resolutions.

¹⁵ *Teacher Personnel Procedures: Employment Conditions in Service*, p. 94. Research Bulletin, National Education Association, Vol. XX, No. 3. Washington: National Education Association, May, 1942.

¹⁶ *Statistics of State and Local Teacher Retirement Systems, 1943-44*, pp. 29-30. Research Bulletin, Vol. XXIII, No. 2. Washington: Research Division, National Education Association, April, 1945.

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Keesecker, Ward W., "Nation-wide Trends in State Legislation," *School Life*, 22:39, 59-60, October, 1936.

Points out trends current in state legislation with reference to increased state control.

Moehlman, Arthur B., *School Administration*, Chaps. 26, 27. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1940.

A searching analysis of the role of the state in education and the activities it should carry on for the improvement of instruction.

State School Finance Systems, Research Bulletin, National Education Association, Vol. XX, No. 5. Washington: National Education Association, November, 1942.

Contains a chapter on the apportionment of state aid for schools. Helpful to beginning students in gaining a further understanding of state school finance.

Status of Teacher Retirement, Research Bulletin, National Education Association, Vol. XIX, No. 1. Washington: National Education Association, January, 1941.

A detailed description of how teacher retirement systems operate.

Chapter 4

THE LOCAL SCHOOL DISTRICT

ALTHOUGH IT WAS pointed out in the preceding chapter that education in the United States is regarded as a function of the state, large powers have been delegated to local school units. These units are creations of the state through which the state carries out its educational purposes. As subordinate divisions in a state systems of schools, they have developed in number, size, administrative organization, and interrelationships reflecting the will of the legislature, which is presumed to represent the thinking of the people of the state about their educational problems. In this chapter the general character of these local school units will be considered, together with their relationship to other units of state government, their organization and function, the personnel who administer them, and the place of the teacher in the local school district.

TYPES OF SCHOOL UNITS

Investigation shows that in 1942 there were 115,384 local administrative units responsible for the functioning of the public schools in the 48 states and the District of Columbia. They were under the administrative and supervisory authority of 360,000 members of local boards of education together with more than 1,000 members of other administrative boards and about 33,000 local school trustees.

Early in the history of our country the small school district made its appearance as a unit for educational control independent of existing political arrangements. This concept of a special independent unit for school administration has persisted, and today approximately half of the local units in the United States

are special school districts the boundaries of which are not identified with any political unit. Because of better means of transportation and communication, recently organized school districts are much larger in size than the original smaller districts. But the boundaries of these newer districts are not, in general, coterminous with the boundaries of political units.

Dissatisfaction with the typical district, however, as a unit for school control has led to its complete or partial abandonment



FIGURE 10. A Classification of the 48 States According to the Types of Organization for Local School Control.

in many states. Where this has occurred, the tendency has been to substitute for it some existing political unit. As a result, the county, the township, the New England town, the city, and the village have become school, as well as political, units of the state.

An analysis of present practices suggests that the various developments of the local unit for educational control may be classified under the following headings: (1) the district-township-county system, (2) the district-county system, (3) the district-supervisory union system, (4) the township-county sys-

tem, (5) the town-supervisory union system, (6) the semi-county system, (7) the county system, and (8) the evolving state system.¹ Figure 10 shows the classification of districts in the 48 states under these headings.

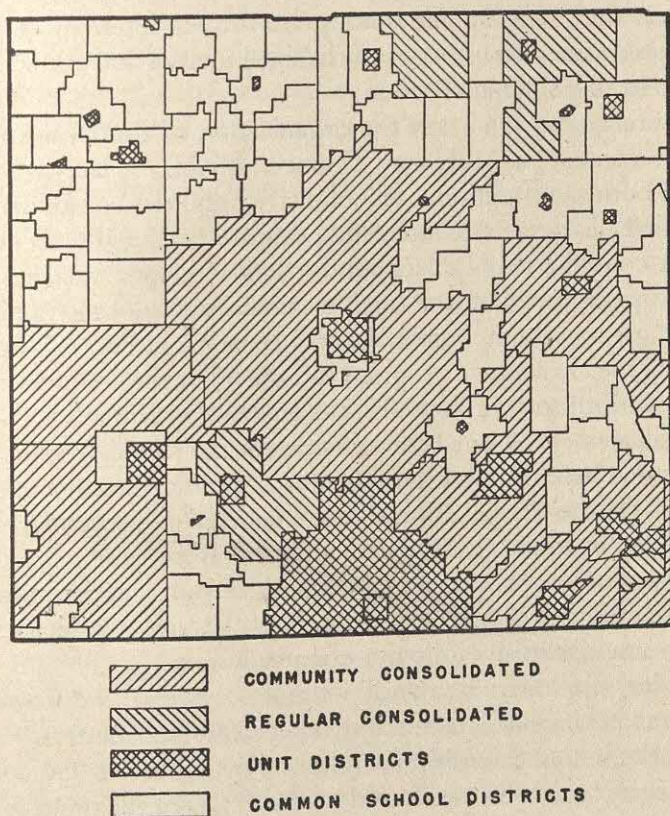


FIGURE 11. School District Organization in McHenry County, Illinois. (The area of this county is 620 square miles. It contains 127 separate school districts, each with the authority to levy a tax for school purposes. Nine districts operate four-year high schools. Eight of these are Community School Districts which overlap underlying elementary districts. The ninth district is a "Unit District" operating a school program for all grades from one through twelve. *Tentative Report of the McHenry County School Survey Committee*, pp. 11-13. McHenry County, Illinois: The School Survey Committee, 1947.)

¹Leo M. Chamberlain and Leonard E. Meece, *The Local Unit for School Administration in the United States*, Part I, p. 9. Bulletin of the Bureau of School Service, Vol. VIII, No. 3. Lexington, Kentucky: College of Education, University of Kentucky, March, 1936.

The District-Township-County System

Illinois and Michigan are the only two states in which this type of organization prevails. In these states, the traditional or modified school district serves as the basic unit for administration, whereas the township and county are used as intermediate units to improve conditions between the local district and the state department of public instruction.

Figure 11 shows in part the organization of the local unit for school control in McHenry County, Illinois. Here are illustrated both the traditional school district and the consolidated or modified district. An interesting feature of the Illinois system is that consolidated high school districts of several varieties have been superimposed on the small elementary school districts, thus creating two school systems largely separate in control, one involving the elementary program and the other the secondary program. With some exceptions, the elementary schools are under the management of one board of trustees and the high schools are controlled by a different board and a different superintendent.

This feature of dual control of elementary and secondary education is not found in Michigan and, therefore, is not typical of the form of organization under consideration. It is, however, a characteristic of the organization in several western states, which are classified as district-county systems.

Under the district-township-county system, the township serves as an intermediate unit only in certain fiscal matters. In Illinois, the school township is under the management and control of three trustees who are elected by the voters of the township for two-year terms. These school trustees have the power to alter district boundary lines to suit the wishes or convenience of a majority of the inhabitants. They are also given authority to apportion the township school funds among the various school units of the township. Similar powers are possessed by the township board and the township clerk in Michigan.

For all schools except those in the larger population centers, the county is an intermediate unit for educational supervision. In both states the county superintendent or commissioner is

elected by popular vote. This semiprofessional officer is given power to visit schools, to report their needs to their respective boards, and to conduct county teachers' meetings and institutes. In Illinois, he apportions the state and county school funds to the various townships and parts of townships in his county, and in some Michigan counties he may recommend teachers for employment by the district boards. Both of these states have made excellent progress in education, but in each case it has been made in spite of the district organization and not because of it.

The District-County System

As indicated in Figure 10, the most common form of organization for local school administration in the United States is the district-county system. With only moderate variations, this arrangement prevails in 23 of the 48 states, 20 of the group lying west of the Mississippi River.

Under the district-county system the basic unit of administration is the traditional or modified school district. Included in the latter category are superimposed high school districts such as those previously described, other special high school districts, village and city school districts, community districts, and the rural consolidated districts. These districts vary enormously in size, in the number of children served, and in the amount of local autonomy granted them. In general, however, it may be said that the board of education or board of trustees is fully responsible for the school or schools of the district, even to the matter of teacher appointment and educational supervision, except for those powers reserved for the county as the intermediate unit of administration. Whether or not a basic unit under the district-county system will have immediate professional direction will depend upon the presence or absence of a local superintendent of schools. In cities and consolidated districts the board will employ a superintendent and delegate to him large responsibility for educational management and supervision. On the other hand, the smaller district will be without professional direction except for the limited and semiofficial supervision of the county superintendent.

Figure 12 shows local-unit organization for school control in Langlade County of Wisconsin, a rather typical district-county system. In this county, with an area of 875 square miles, there are 50 school districts, the vast majority of which have only a one-room or partially graded school. In each of the districts a board of three trustees is entrusted with the supervision and care of the school property, the formulation of the budget, the

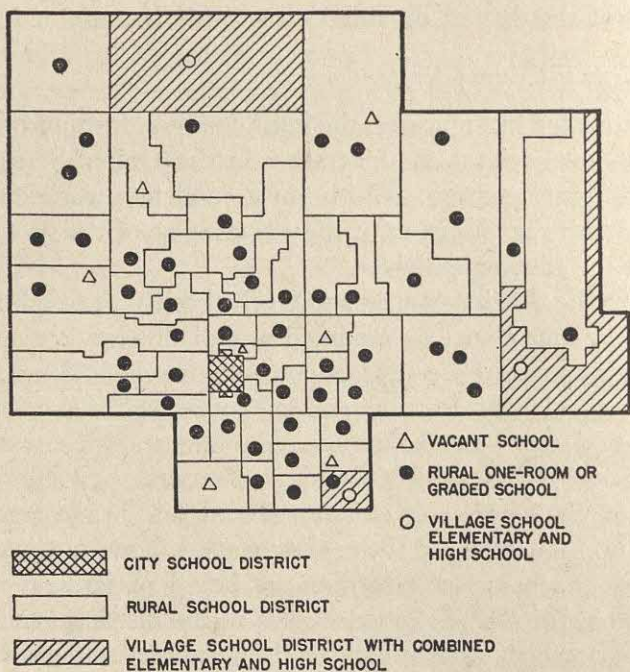


FIGURE 12. School District Organization in Langlade County, Wisconsin.

expenditure of funds, the appointment of teachers, and the general management and control of educational affairs.

The county is the intermediate unit for supervisory purposes for all districts except the independent city district. This intermediate unit is represented by a county superintendent of schools elected by popular vote. The duties of this partially political and partially professional officer are to visit the schools under his supervision; to inquire into matters concerning courses of study,

methods of instruction, textbooks, discipline, and buildings and equipment; to advise and direct local boards of trustees on all educational matters; to employ special supervising teachers; to receive educational and financial reports; and to serve as the intermediary officer between the basic school districts of the county and the state department of education.

Although the district-county states vary in the size and classification of their districts and in the allocation of authority between the basic and intermediate units, the Wisconsin county described above is essentially typical. This system might be considered a step in advance of the district-township-county plan, in that it provides for one less intermediate unit. However, with the exception of those places where the districts have been modified by consolidation, it is equally complex, cumbersome, and inefficient.

The District-Supervisory Union System

New York is the one state that can be said to be operating on a district-supervisory union plan. In this state, the basic unit for school administration is the traditional or modified district of which there are three types commonly referred to as the city superintendency, the village superintendency, and the district superintendency. Sixty-one districts are city school systems; 100 are village or union free school districts with populations of 4,500 or more which employ their own superintendents; the remaining school districts of the state—numbering over 4,000—are grouped into 177 supervisory unions or districts each under a district superintendent of schools who is an employee of the state education department although he is elected to his position by a board of school directors chosen by popular vote at town elections.

Three hundred and forty-four of the school districts which are under the supervision of district superintendents are central schools; four are central high schools; about 250 are union free schools maintaining high school departments, and the remainder are common school districts having one or two teacher schools with one or three trustees in charge of their affairs. These

trustees have power to contract with and employ teachers, to levy such taxes as have been authorized by the district meeting, to provide school houses, equipment and supplies, to prescribe courses of study, and to make rules and regulations for the discipline of the schools in the district.

The educational affairs of each city district are under the management and control of a board of education of from three to nine members elected from the city at large or appointed by the mayor, depending upon the laws governing that particular city or class of city. All boards of education in villages, like the school trustees in the common school districts, are elected by the school voters. In the largest cities the boards of education are fiscally dependent. In the other school districts of the state they are fiscally independent and they enjoy the usual powers to engage teachers, levy taxes authorized by annual district meetings, and also a wide variety of other powers set forth in the state education law.

As the county and township have no place in the administration of schools in New York, the supervisory union has been created as a means of providing professional supervision for rural districts. Each county, except the five included in New York City, is divided into one or more supervisory unions. Each of these unions has a board of school directors made up of members who are elected from each of the districts composing the union. This board elects the union or district superintendent. The state pays this superintendent a certain salary and reimburses him for expenses. The school districts in the union may supplement this salary if they desire to do so. The duties of the superintendent are educational and primarily advisory. His principal duties are to see that the boundaries of school districts within the union are properly described and recorded; to hold teachers' meetings; to give counsel concerning problems of discipline, courses of study, school management, promotions, and general school work; to hold meetings of trustees and to advise them about the employment of teachers, adoption of textbooks, and the purchases of school supplies; to make reports to

state officials; and to perform such other duties as the state commissioner of education may direct.

Although this plan provides for a large number of school districts and leaves large responsibilities with school trustees, it is an improvement over the two systems previously described in that it provides a certain amount of professional guidance for every school in the state.

The Township-County System

The township-county plan for school control is in operation in Indiana, Pennsylvania, and New Jersey. In each of these states the township is a civil unit of some importance and in addition serves as the basic unit for school control. In New Jersey

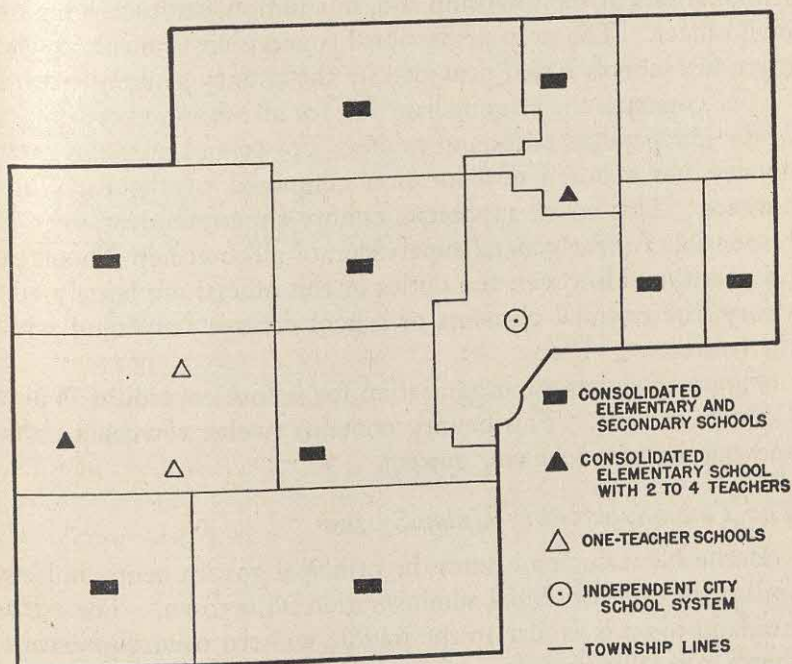


FIGURE 13. School District Organization in White County, Indiana. (The area of this county is 507 square miles. It contains twelve township units, involving two one-room schools, two consolidated elementary schools, and nine consolidated elementary and secondary schools. It contains also one independent city-school system.)

and eastern Pennsylvania the township is an irregular area, while in western Pennsylvania, Indiana, and other middle western states it is regular in form and approximately six miles square.

In Indiana, which may well serve as an example of this form of organization, the area of each township forms a single school district, with the exception of any independent city or village that may be located within its boundaries. These independent school units are under the control of boards of education, which appoint superintendents and delegate to them the professional management of the schools of the city or town. Exclusive of these independent districts, each township forms a school unit under the control of a township trustee who is elected by popular vote. This trustee has virtually complete control over all school affairs of the township and, in addition, serves as a minor civil officer. The only professional supervision available to the township schools is that provided by the county superintendent.

The county is the intermediate unit for all schools except those in the independent cities and towns. For school purposes each county has a board of education composed of the township trustees. This board appoints a county superintendent, who is responsible for the general supervision of all township schools in his county. However, the duties of this official are largely advisory, the essential elements of school control remaining with the trustee.

Figure 13 shows the organization for school control in White County, Indiana. This county contains twelve township units and one independent city system.

The Town-Supervisory Union System

In the New England states the principal governmental unit as well as the unit for school administration is the town. The New England town is similar to the middle western township except that it is usually irregular in form and somewhat smaller in area.² It may consist almost entirely of rural territory, or it may have

² The word *town* as used in New England should not be confused with the same term as used elsewhere. In New England the word does not mean a village or small city, but a governmental unit like the county or township.

within its boundaries a village or city. In any case the entire town forms a single unit for purposes of school administration, the independent city or village school, such as is found so frequently in township and county systems, making its appearance in only a few exceptional instances.

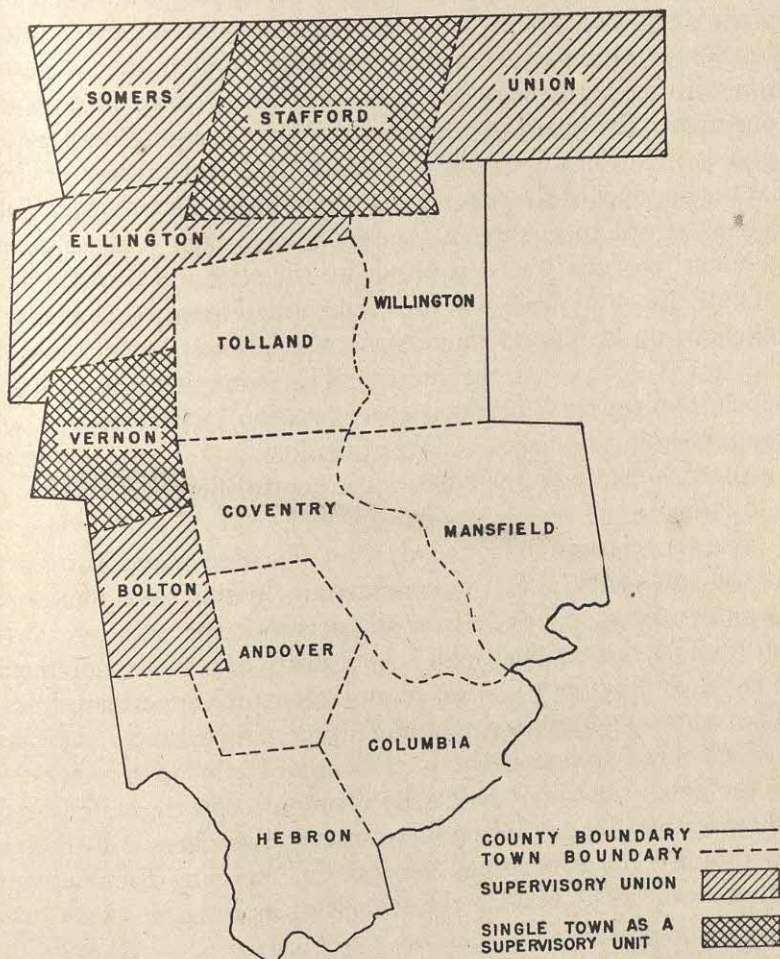


FIGURE 14. School District Organization in Tolland County, Connecticut. (The area of this county is 404 square miles. It contains thirteen towns, and includes a supervisory union composed of four towns within the county. The remaining towns belong to other supervisory unions, with the exception of Stafford and Vernon, which employ their own superintendents.)

For school purposes each town is under the management of a board of education which is empowered to establish and maintain elementary and secondary schools; to abolish and consolidate attendance districts within the town; to establish courses of study; to adopt budgets; to employ teachers and principals; and to do all other things necessary for the successful operation of the schools of the town. All towns must provide for professional supervision either at their own expense or in co-operation with other towns or the state. In each of the more populous towns, the board of education appoints a superintendent of schools and delegates to this executive officer large responsibility for the conduct of the schools. The less populous towns, which cannot afford to employ a superintendent, each join together voluntarily or are joined together by the state into supervisory unions. Each of these unions is represented by a joint committee made up of representatives from the boards of education of the towns composing the union. This committee appoints a superintendent who becomes the educational supervisor of all towns within the union. The supervisory union thus serves as an intermediate unit for educational control between the town and the state.

The organization in Connecticut may be used as an illustration of the town-supervisory union system. In this state there are 155 town units, 14 special city districts, one special school district, and three regional high school districts. Ninety of these units, including the 14 cities, employ their own superintendents. The remaining towns compose 12 supervisory units. Within one of these unions, each town board of education delegates to the union superintendent, who is provided by the state board of education, the authority to recommend teachers and the responsibility for educational supervision, retaining for itself all other authority respecting the schools of its town.

The Semi-County System

Dissatisfaction with the traditional school district has caused several states to abandon it as a unit for school administration and to substitute the county as the basic unit of control. For

the most part this change has taken place in the south, where the county has always been an important governmental unit. In most of these states, however, the movement toward the county unit has not been complete. Generally, the cities and larger villages have been exempted from county control and set up as independent school districts, and in nearly all states of this group, some semblance of power has been left with subdistrict trustees. In some cases these trustees serve only as custodians of their respective buildings, but in others they have had reserved to them the very important responsibility of nominating teachers for the rural schools. Where this or other important powers are granted to the subdistrict trustees, the organization, though classified as a semi-county plan, retains certain characteristics of the district system.

With the exception of the powers granted the subdistrict trustees, full responsibility for the control of the county school system rests with a county board of education. This board appoints a superintendent who is responsible for all the schools of the county except those in independent city or village districts. In these districts the people elect their own board of education, which with its appointed superintendent operates the schools of the independent city or village.

A Kentucky county may be used as an illustration of the semi-county system. In Pike County, shown in Figure 15, there is one independent city district, with its own board of education. The remainder of the county, involving more than 16,000 school children, is under the control of a board of education of five members and a county superintendent appointed by this board. For each rural school attendance area or subdistrict, there is a trustee who legally has the right to nominate the teacher to serve in his subdistrict. With the exception of this single power, the district system has been eliminated.

Under the semi-county plan, the basic unit of administration is much larger than in any of the plans previously described, and the intermediate unit is entirely lacking. Moreover, with the exception of the powers granted the subdistrict trustee, entire responsibility for the management of the schools rests with city

and county superintendents, who are in most cases qualified educational leaders. The chief disadvantages of the system are the excessive number of independent districts and the retention of the subdistrict trustees as a school officer of some importance.

The County System

This plan of organization is a step in advance of the one just described in that the subdistrict trustee has been legislated out of existence and the independent district has been nearly or entirely eliminated. The three states in this classification are Louisiana,

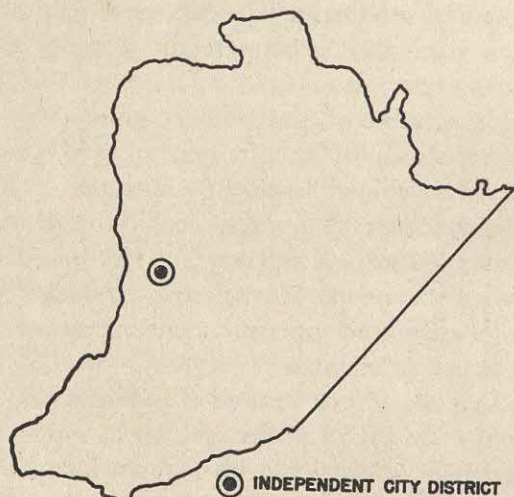


FIGURE 15. Local Units for School Administration in Pike County, Kentucky. (The area of the county is 779 square miles. It contains two school units, the county unit proper and one independent city district.)

Maryland, and West Virginia. In Louisiana there are two independent city districts and in Maryland, one. In West Virginia the county unit is complete, every school in each county being under the administration of a county board of education and a county superintendent, even though the county may include within its boundaries a large city and several villages. The simplicity of this form of organization is shown in Figure 16.

Under a district system, West Virginia would have thousands of small school units, each independent of the others; there would

be thousands of lay trustees, probably more than the number of teachers, each responsible for administering in detail an educational program about which he could know but little; the districts would vary enormously in size, enrollments, ability to support education, and in the power granted them by the state; and in the rural areas almost all teachers would be without professional guidance and supervision other than that provided

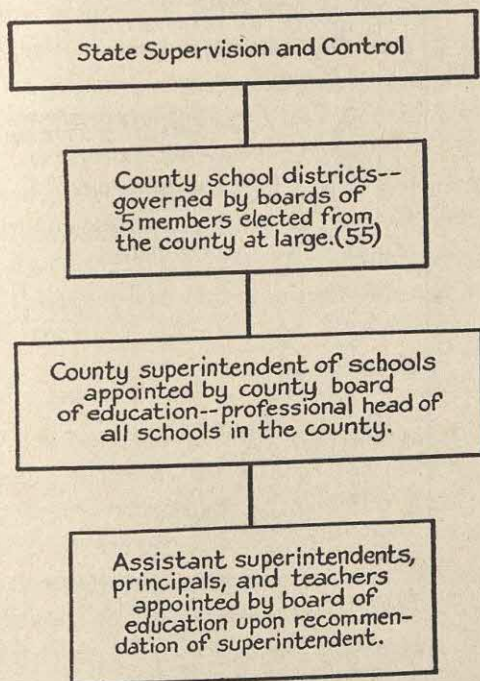


FIGURE 16. The Organization for the Control of Education in West Virginia.

through some immediate unit. Under a county system, the number of units is reduced; the units are vastly larger; they are reasonably homogeneous; and every teacher is employed on the recommendation of a trained superintendent and his work is supervised by this official.

An Evolving State System

At this point it should be apparent that the evolution of school organization is in the direction of larger units for local school

control, and increased centralization of authority in the state. Whether this tendency will continue until the local unit of administration entirely disappears, it is difficult to say. However, in three states at least, certain practices point definitely in this direction. In Maryland, which has been classified as a county

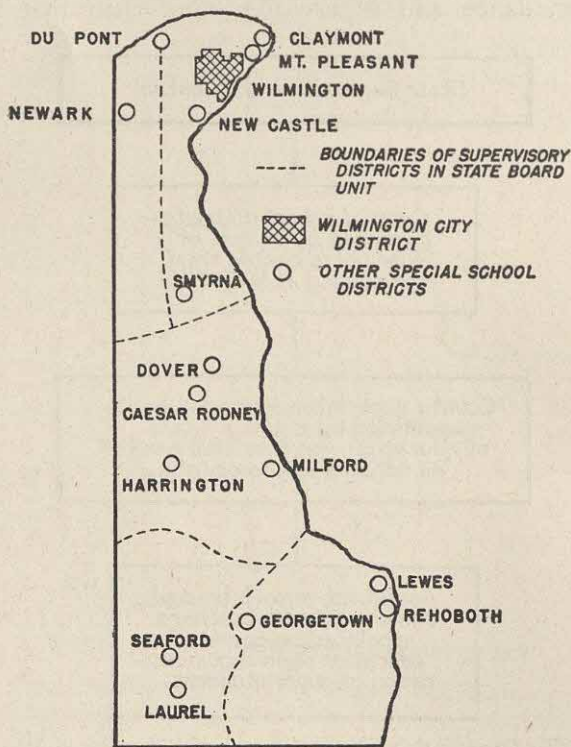


FIGURE 17. School District Organization in Delaware. (The area of the State of Delaware is 1,965 square miles. It contains fifteen special districts and a single state board unit outside of the City of Wilmington.)

system, all members of county boards of education are appointed by the governor of the state and may be removed from office on recommendation of the state superintendent of public instruction. Furthermore, the appointment of the county superintendent by the county board of education must have the approval of the state superintendent. In Nevada, though the

county still serves as an intermediate unit for fiscal purposes, it has been abandoned as a supervisory unit. Instead, the state has been divided into six supervisory districts containing from one to five counties. For purposes of educational supervision, all districts in each of these areas are under the control of a deputy state superintendent.

In Delaware the evolution toward the state as the single school unit has been even more marked. With the exception of 15 special districts, the state forms what is known as a state board unit. This unit is administered by the state superintendent with the assistance of special supervisory agents. For this purpose the state unit is divided into six supervisory districts. Although there is a local board of trustees for each attendance area which acts as the representative of the state superintendent in the management of its respective school, the tendency is clearly in the direction of the complete elimination of all local units except the 15 special districts.

CHARACTERISTICS OF AN EFFECTIVE LOCAL UNIT

It should not be assumed from the foregoing analysis of the various systems in use in the United States that any particular organization or any particular unit is recommended for all situations. Most students of school administration would agree that a semi-county or county system is an improvement over any organization involving the traditional school district. On the other hand, it would be unwise to suggest that all states should adopt a county-unit plan. A county is one thing in one state and something entirely different in another. In size, for example, the average area varies from about 211 square miles in Rhode Island to more than 8,000 square miles in Arizona. In the south the boundaries of the counties are largely natural, while in the middle west they are almost wholly artificial. In New England the county has almost no significance as a governmental unit, but it is of first importance in the south. In addition, counties vary significantly with respect to topography, density of population, natural wealth, and in provisions for communication and transportation. It would seem, therefore, that because the county

has been found satisfactory as a basic unit in some states, it is not evidence that it would serve equally well everywhere. The same, of course, could be said of the township, town, or any other unit. There appears to be no single form of organization that will fit every situation better than any other system.

However, it is possible to cite certain characteristics that are essential for an effective organization, regardless of the name of the particular unit or units employed. That the local unit for school control should be much larger than those employed in most states would seem to be one of the first requirements. An increase in size means greater equality in educational opportunities and tax burdens. Even in a semi-county or county system, which in general provides a larger unit than any other form of organization, the inequalities are still enormous. A study of a southern state shows, for example, that one of the poorer counties was able to produce only \$4 for each child in the school census by levying a local tax of 75 cents on each \$100 of assessed valuation. In contrast, another county provided \$40 for each child with a tax rate of only 45 cents, and an independent city district, \$70 with a tax rate of 75 cents. Such inequalities are never eliminated entirely by increasing the size of the unit of taxation, but it is clear that they can be reduced by this procedure. Other things being equal, the smaller the unit and the larger the number of specially privileged districts, such as independent cities and villages, the greater will be the inequalities in educational opportunities and tax burdens.

A second argument for the relatively large unit is that it facilitates consolidation and the establishment of larger schools. These developments mean, in turn, economy and greater educational efficiency. Consolidation is extremely difficult when thousands of small school districts and trustees are involved, but relatively simple when a large area is under the administration of a single board and a qualified superintendent.

The larger unit of administration likewise tends to insure capable leadership both on boards of education and in the office of superintendent. When the organization of the state makes it necessary to have thousands of local districts, it is almost certain

that the trustees in many of them will be men of little vision and little ability. In fact, it is not improbable that some of those serving in rural areas will be virtually illiterate, wholly lacking in public spirit, and in some cases dishonest. Such conditions are not entirely eliminated by abandoning the small district. However, it should be apparent that the larger unit, particularly if it includes village or urban areas, is much more likely to furnish the kind of leadership needed on boards for school control. The same thing is true of the office of superintendent. The smaller the number of administrative units in a state, the better are its chances to provide for each a qualified educational leader.

The area of an administrative unit is not, of course, the only factor that needs to be considered. Density of population and conditions of communication and travel both help to determine whether or not the area is too large or too small. The city of Philadelphia, for example, enrolls more than one quarter of a million children. It is a compact area that can be effectively and economically managed by a single board of education and one school executive. The same area in a western state might not provide enough children to maintain even a one-room school, and topography and travel conditions might be such as to prevent its effective administration as one unit even though it included hundreds of children. It is clear, therefore, that size in and of itself is not a satisfactory criterion for judging a local unit for school control. Equally important are the number of children involved and conditions of communication and travel.

Another characteristic of a satisfactory organization is that the units should be as homogeneous as possible with respect to the tax base and legal authority. In semi-county and township systems many special city and village districts have been created. These districts frequently have been given legal privileges that are unwarranted, their boundaries sometimes have been gerrymandered in order to increase the tax base, and in most cases their wealth is far greater in proportion to the number of children to be educated than the wealth of the rural areas surrounding them. Therefore, the practice of legalizing these special districts, even though it can be justified in some cases, tends to in-

crease greatly the inequalities in educational opportunities and tax burdens.

As far as possible it seems advisable that the unit for school control include a natural economic and social community rather than an artificial area. As such a community is usually defined by natural boundaries, it is probable that where other things are equal, conditions will be improved if the local unit is laid out with natural rather than artificial boundary lines.

Finally, it would appear that the organization should be such as to make the levying and collection of taxes as simple and inexpensive as possible. Inasmuch as taxes must be levied and collected for both the schools and the general government, it is probably better, if other more important advantages are not sacrificed, to have the school unit coterminous with the civil unit. This means that a single tax-collecting agency can serve both corporations, and that there will be few or no complications in the distribution of tax money.

In summary, it may be said that an effective organization for local school control will provide a unit that is large enough to reduce as much as possible inequalities in tax burdens and educational opportunities, to provide capable leadership on boards of education and in the office of superintendent, to place the appointment of every teacher and the direction of every school in the hands of a trained school executive, and to make possible schools of effective and economical size. On the other hand, it will provide a unit that is small enough, in terms of topography and conditions of transportation and communication, to make efficient administration possible. In a superior organization the number of independent units with special privileges will be reduced to a minimum, each unit will include a natural economic and social community, and, in so far as possible, each will be coterminous or approximately coterminous with an established governmental unit.

THE RELATIONSHIPS OF THE SCHOOL CORPORATION TO THE CIVIL CORPORATION

Whenever a school corporation is coterminous or approximately coterminous with a civil unit, it is necessary that their ad-

ministrative and financial relationships be defined. Shall the schools of a city, for example, be administered and financed as a subordinate division of the general city government or shall they be operated independently as a second governmental organization occupying the same territory as the city government proper? This is a highly debatable problem and one upon which school authorities and students of local government are by no means agreed.

Generally speaking, the student of political science holds that the schools are but a single phase of government which, even if recognized as more important than certain other phases, should be governed as a subordinate department in the same manner as the police department, the fire department, and other similar divisions. Administratively, this would mean that the superintendent of schools would receive his appointment from the city manager or mayor as the case might be, and that the appointment would be approved by the city board of commissioners, the city council, or such other body as might be representing the people in the government of their city. Financially, it would mean that the money for the operation of the schools would be budgeted as a part of the general budget, and that the amount spent and the tax rate necessary to raise this amount would be determined by the civil authorities.

Specialists in school administration take an entirely different point of view. They argue that the schools should be both administratively and financially independent of local governmental authorities. By administrative independence, they refer to the right of the people to choose a board for the control of education that is entirely separate from the council or other body responsible for city government. This board of education is to select its own administrative officer in the same way the governing board of the city chooses its mayor or city manager, and is to delegate to him large responsibility for the administration of the schools. In this work he is to be entirely free from domination by any authority other than the board that appointed him. By financial independence, the student of education refers to the right of the local school authorities to decide how much money the schools need for their effective operation and to see that the

taxes necessary to raise that money are levied. Where the schools are financially independent, the board of education makes its own budget and determines the tax rate that will be necessary to furnish the budgeted amount. The board then certifies this rate to the city authorities who, under the provisions of the law, must make the specified levy in addition to the other levies required for the remaining departments of the city government.

From a strictly logical point of view, the arguments on this issue would appear to be largely on the side of the student of general government. If the position of the schoolman were carried to its natural conclusion, every aspect of local government would have its separate board, each individually responsible to the people and each naming its own executive officer. Obviously, this would tend to be an inefficient and wasteful organization. Why, then, do those engaged in school work insist on administrative and financial independence for the local school unit? The answer is that experience has shown that the schools cannot be free from undesirable political influence nor can they be adequately supported as long as they are administratively and financially dependent.

Regardless of the merits of the arguments on either side of the issue, the schools of the nation are in nearly all cases administratively independent, and in many states there are laws guaranteeing financial independence. In other states where this general guarantee is lacking, many local school units have obtained the privilege of determining their own budgets and tax rates.

In order to have a clear picture of the organization for the control of a local school system, the student must recognize, then, that there can be and frequently are two government agencies occupying the same territory, the one existing for the control of the schools and the other for the control of other departments of government. Each has been granted corporate powers by the state and each is administratively independent of the other. Financially, the relationships between the two corporations will vary among states and communities. In some instances the schools will be fiscally independent, in some cases they will

be partially so, and in others all school finances will be subject to the review of civil authorities. Although the city has been used for illustration in the preceding discussion, some form of this dual relationship must exist regardless of the particular type of local unit in use.

THE BOARD OF EDUCATION

School organization differs within states and between states, but the control and direction of schools is vested in a board of education or a board of trustees in all states. The local board of education represents the citizens and taxpayers of the community in shaping the policies and approving the programs they want for their children who attend the public schools.

This system of education in America began near the people—"in log cabins, in covered wagons along the trail, among the cottages of seafaring men, and in sod shanties . . . and so an American tradition came to be: free schools for a free people. The earliest schools were planned and managed by the whole community, all the citizens having a voice in what was done. When such direct control became impractical, temporary committees were often appointed, each to do some important job—such as to build a schoolhouse or to select and employ a teacher. Then, as the amount of school business increased, temporary committees were replaced by permanent school committees or school boards, thus establishing an institution close to the daily lives of the American people."³

The process through which the board of education evolved brought with it many variations in the nature of local school boards. Boards of education as a result differ considerably in number of members, term of office, competency of individuals, method of selection, and range of authority.

Nature of the Board

Other than state and national citizenship and residence in the school district, there are no other specific legal requirements for

³*School Boards in Action*, pp. 9-10. Twenty-fourth Yearbook, American Association of School Administrators. Washington: National Education Association, 1946.

school board membership. Though these qualifications are important, they are scarcely adequate for the intelligent and progressive direction of a school system. Men and women are needed on school boards who are honestly concerned with what happens educationally to children in school. As the Twenty-fourth Yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators puts it:

Democrats, Republicans, Socialists, or Communists, *as such*, are not wanted on school boards in this country. Neither New Dealers, nor labor leaders, nor capitalists, nor America First, *as such*, are needed to assume responsibility for public education in the United States.⁴

Accordingly, members of a school board should be selected because they represent the entire community—not because they represent special interests, different political or occupational classifications, geographic sections of a city, a particular racial or religious group.

The individual board member should be a man or woman who has given evidence in his work of common sense, business ability, and foresight. He or she should be a person whose social and civic activities reflect a keen interest in problems of public education and social welfare; a person who recognizes his responsibility to the entire community; one who can work co-operatively with others; and an individual who is willing to learn thoroughly the duties and responsibilities of this public office.

Board members should serve without pay, except to be reimbursed for actual expenses incurred in connection with their work. Theirs is a position of high public service rather than one for personal gain. The moment this trust is accepted for the monetary return it may bring, membership becomes a matter of patronage or politics thereby attracting incompetent and often unscrupulous individuals instead of the most capable men and women in the community. The payment of a salary may also mean that the member feels that he must earn his salary.

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 26.

This inevitably leads into the doing of detailed administrative work that is a responsibility of the superintendent, who has been trained for his position. The result is dualism in administration and conflict in authority to the detriment of the entire school system.

Despite the fact that there are still some localities in which the board of education is appointed by some civil official or body, it is generally agreed that best conditions prevail when the members are elected from the district at large on a non-partisan ballot, and preferably at a special school election. The term of office should be relatively long, probably not less than four years, and the tenure of the various members should overlap so that at any time there will be at least one experienced member. An arrangement of this kind not only insures that the board will have the benefit of experience, but it tends to guarantee continuity of policy and long-term planning.

Most students of education are agreed that a board functions more effectively when its membership is relatively small. It is suggested that the number of members be five or seven, and that the board function as a whole, delegating its authority to individual members or committees only when such a procedure is necessary to save time or to insure that a specialized task of some kind will be performed. This last principle should not be interpreted as meaning that the board is actually to administer a school system without delegation of authority. On the contrary, it is assumed that the board will delegate most of its authority, but that the delegation will be to the superintendent of schools and his staff and not to members or committees of the board.

The Function of the Board

Because of their evolutionary origin, boards of education vary greatly with respect to the functions performed. At the one extreme is the board of trustees in the small rural district which has under its direction only one or a few teaching positions and which assumes full responsibility for the management of the educational program. At the other extreme is the board of education in the large city school system which restricts its

work entirely to the formulation of fundamental policies, leaving the actual administration of the schools to the superintendent and the assistants whom he selects. Between these two extremes are found all possible variations in the distribution of duties between the lay board on the one hand and the superintendent on the other.

As a unit of state government, local boards of education have been given far-reaching authority over matters affecting public elementary and secondary education. They are empowered to determine how the schools shall be run, to erect buildings, to select a superintendent and to pass upon the employment of all personnel, to select textbooks and courses of study, to set the term of the school year, to prepare the budget and decide how the tax dollar shall be spent for education, to establish salary schedules for all instructional and noninstructional employees, to make the rules and regulations of the school system, to order the purchasing of supplies, and to promulgate plans for the improvement of public education and the extension of school services. In the exercise of these powers, the board of education is a sovereign governmental agency responsible to the people of the local community and the legislature of the state.

In the exercise of these broad powers, it becomes a responsibility of the board of education to develop—with the aid of the superintendent and his staff—forward-looking policies and programs that are in accord with the needs of the community; to provide physical and educational conditions that are essential to good instruction; to permit experimentation with new ideas and developments in education; to require the superintendent to supply information showing how effectively the policies and programs of the school system are working out in practice; to keep the people of the community fully informed about the purposes, needs, and problems of the schools; and, to develop close cooperation with public officials and private agencies in using effectively school buildings and other school property for the educational advancement of the people of the community.

It is conceivable that some authorities in school administration will not agree fully with the point of view expressed above be-

cause it goes beyond the responsibilities usually associated with boards of education in many American communities. It is predicated upon the legal and moral obligations of school boards to perform their responsibilities in the interest of every child and every citizen for whom the schools exist.

THE SUPERINTENDENT AND THE ADMINISTRATIVE STAFF

The professional school administrator has little more than a century of history behind him. The first "superintendent" was appointed in Louisville, Kentucky, about 1837. He was employed to serve as a secretary to the board of education, to keep the necessary financial records, and to supervise the educational program. Little growth in the direction of professional supervision of schools took place until after the middle of the last century, however, and it was not until the beginning of the present century that the need for the professionally trained administrator became clearly defined.

Today it is assumed that any well-managed school system will be under the direction of a superintendent of schools and such additional administrative personnel as may be necessary. The superintendent is expected to be a man of superior character and ability, with a broad educational background and a large amount of specialized training. As a chief executive for the board of education, he must be a student of government and public affairs, an efficient business and financial director, and a technical expert on all educational problems.

Where proper practices prevail, the superintendent is selected by the board of education on the basis of training, experience, and professional reputation; he is given the authority to set up the type of organization that he considers necessary for the efficient administration of the schools, and the right to select the necessary personnel. In a small school system the personnel will include only the teachers, the janitorial staff, and perhaps a clerk in the office of the superintendent. In a system somewhat larger the organization will also include the principals of the various schools, an attendance officer, a business manager, and one or more special supervisors. As the system increases in

size the organization becomes more and more complex, including, in addition to the personnel mentioned above, assistant superintendents; directors of a large number of special services, such as research, guidance, health, and personnel; specialists in business management, such as a controller and director of buildings and grounds; a number of special supervisors; and a large staff of assistants, clerks, and stenographers.

The services furnished by the employees of a school system are known either as *line* services or *staff* services, terms which

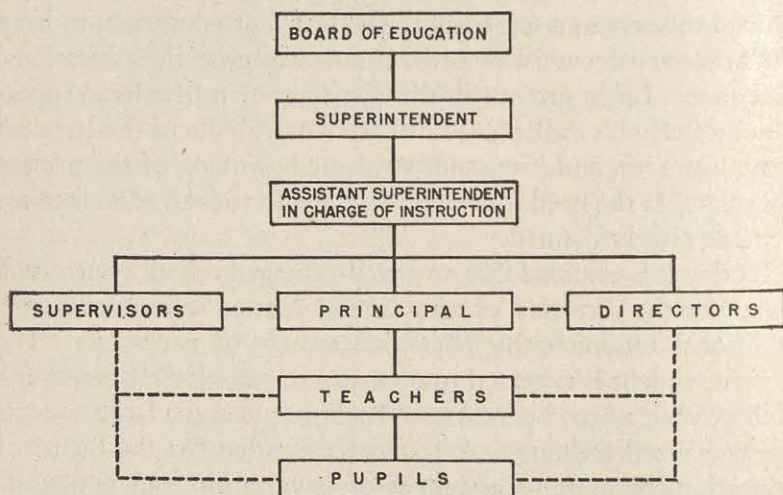


FIGURE 18. The Organization of Line and Staff Services.

have been borrowed from the organization of military personnel. Line officers are those clothed with administrative power in a descending line of authority from the board of education to the teacher. Staff officers, on the other hand, are advisory experts who are directly responsible to the superintendent of schools or his immediate assistants. They have no authority over principals or teachers but exist instead to serve the needs of teachers and pupils through the technical and specialized contributions they are able to make. Thus a supervisor is a staff agent who works on call with principals, department heads, and teachers in answer to a request for technical advice and assistance. An illus-

tration of the organization of line and staff personnel is shown in Figure 18. The solid lines indicate the flow of administrative authority, and the broken lines indicate staff or advisory relations through which specialized contributions are made for the improvement of the instructional process. Unless staff services are kept strictly on an advisory basis, the teacher, for example, is responsible not only to the principal but also to the supervisor or director of the special field in which he is working. The result is often one of divided loyalty and conflict in authority to the detriment of the teacher and the pupils. It is, in this respect, especially important that the teacher have a clear idea of his relationship to line and staff personnel.

THE PLACE OF THE TEACHER

From the foregoing discussion it is not difficult to see why teachers become confused about their relationships with other members of the school staff. Shall a teacher seek guidance and direction or take orders from the individual member of the board of education? Shall he carry his problems to the superintendent of schools, ignoring the principal? To which members of the staff is he administratively responsible and which are to serve him only in an advisory capacity? With which ones is he expected to work on a co-operative basis and who, besides the children in his classes, is subject to his authority? Specific answers to these questions cannot be given except in terms of a particular situation. It is possible, however, to set forth certain principles which, if observed, would prevent much of the misunderstanding, friction, and resentment that characterize so many school systems.

The Teacher and the Board

In analyzing his relationships to the board of education, the teacher should first realize that all legal authority granted to a body of this kind is granted to the board as a whole and not to its members. The individual man or woman serving on a board of education has no authority whatever over the schools or the teachers except that which he may exert during an official meet-

ing of the board, or that which the board as a whole may specifically delegate to him. In a properly conducted school system, such delegated authority is almost always concerned with business or financial matters and not with the educational program or the teaching staff. This means, in effect, that the teacher should have little reason for courting the favor of a board member or for fearing his displeasure. A board member, by his attendance at meetings, may have a decided influence on the board's actions, but as an individual his relationships to the teacher are not greatly different from those of any other lay citizen who is keenly interested in the educational program.

The second point to be noted is that immediate responsibility for the management of the schools should be assigned to the superintendent and not to the board of education.⁵ This responsibility should extend to the selection of teachers and to their promotion and dismissal. It means that the teacher should conduct his official business with the board through the office of the superintendent and that the reverse of this procedure should prevail when the board deals with the teacher. There is, in fact, little reason for other than ordinary social relationships between the teacher and a member of the board of education.

It is the general consensus of all who have given careful study to problems of school administration that best conditions prevail when all relationships between board members and teachers, other than those of a social nature, are indirect. That this principle can be applied with success is indicated by practice in city school systems. In these larger districts there is virtually no official contact between the teacher and board of education, and yet their educational programs are generally superior.

The Teacher and the Administrative Staff

In a well-conducted school system, the superintendent of schools is the single executive head from whom emanates all au-

⁵ There are situations in which this principle cannot be applied. In small rural-school districts where there is no superintendent, the immediate direction of the school must of necessity be left with the board. The remedy for this condition is, of course, the reorganization of the school districts in such a way that every school can come under the direction of a trained administrator.

thority and to whom every member of the staff is either directly or indirectly responsible. As was suggested previously, the flow of authority in line service is from the superintendent, through the principal, to the teacher. This means that the superintendent, in most of his relationships with the teacher, will work through the principal, if the school system is large enough to make this official necessary. In a large system his contacts may be through both an assistant superintendent and a principal. It means also that the teacher will first take his problem to his immediate superior—generally the principal. If the issue cannot be settled in this manner, the principal will take it to the administrative officer next in line, and this officer in turn will do the same. Thus a problem of a teacher may eventually reach the board of education, but if it does it will be presented to the board by the superintendent. The responsibility of each individual in the organization is to the office immediately above him and he cannot ethically take the shorter path to a higher official even though this procedure may seem to offer the best solution to his difficulty.

The relations of the teacher to those engaged in staff service will vary with the particular organization and the views of the superintendent as to the proper division of function. In some cases staff officers may work with the teacher in an advisory capacity with no authority except that which they may exert through the superintendent and principal; in others they may be given some authority for supervision and guidance; and in still other cases the only relationships will be those of a co-operative nature. For the average teacher the most important staff relationships are those with the special supervisor and the janitorial staff. His responsibilities in both connections are considered in some detail in subsequent chapters.

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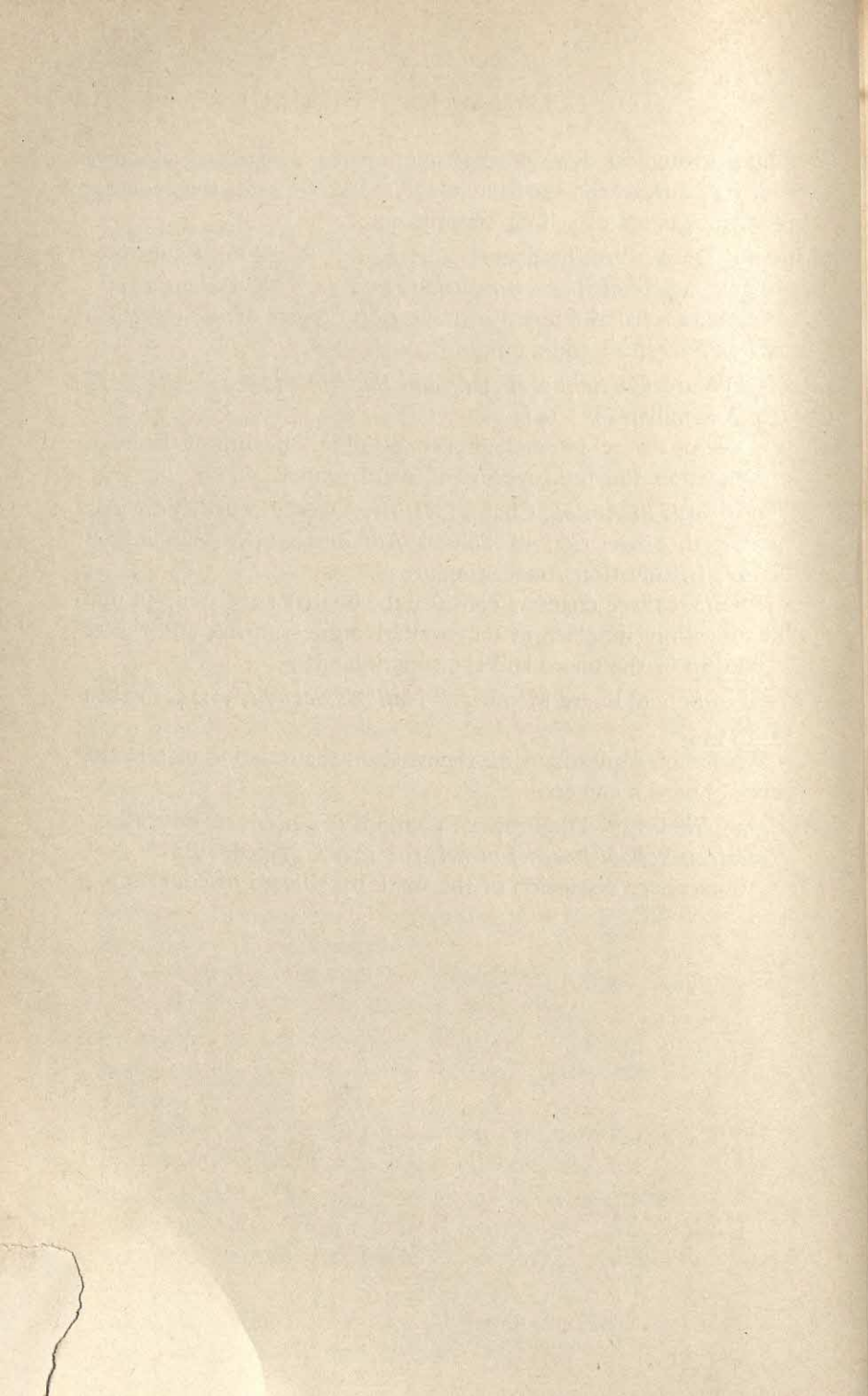
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Part III

PROBLEMS OF
PROSPECTIVE TEACHERS

Chapter 5

PREPARATION FOR TEACHING

ATTENTION WAS called previously to the fact that nearly one million teachers are employed in the elementary and secondary schools of the United States. These teachers are responsible for the guidance and instruction of almost 28,000,000 children and youth whose knowledge, habits, attitudes, opinions, and beliefs represent, over a period of years, a major force in the determination of the social order. The extent to which the school realizes its potentialities for the wholesome growth and social development of the individual depends largely upon the training and competency of the instructional personnel. Consequently, it becomes a significant problem in educational planning and administration to select and prepare teachers who are competent to carry out the role of the school in society.

From another point of view, it is important that the individual who is considering teaching as a life career should understand what is required of him and know whether he possesses the interest and competencies basic to success in this field of work. He should examine himself just as closely and carefully in this respect as those who direct his training or who subsequently employ him for a teaching position.

THE NATURE OF THE TEACHER'S PREPARATION

Although state school officials and officers of teacher-training institutions determine, for the most part, the kind and amount of preparation that the prospective teacher is to receive, there are still many considerations essential to preparation for teaching which extend beyond the legal and formalized requirements of the state and teacher training institutions.

Amount of Preparation

The prospective teacher should be able to judge whether or not the institutional program he is following is adequate for meeting the standards of employment in good school systems. Many teachers make the mistake of assuming that they are fully qualified because they have taken the courses required by the state for certification. They forget that the certification laws often represent the minimum standards, which teacher-training institutions and progress superintendents of schools supplement with higher standards.

The state laws may provide that a teacher can secure a certificate to teach in either the elementary or secondary schools by completing two or three years of college work, including at least 12 semester hours of credit in education. The student may believe that this amount of preparation is adequate for teaching since the state grants a certificate on the basis of it. And it is true that in some communities teachers are employed for the elementary grades, and occasionally for the secondary school, with a minimum amount of preparation. But the practice of employing teachers with less than four years of college work is rapidly disappearing.

This fact was brought out in a recent report by the Commission on Teacher Education.¹ In discussing increased standards for teacher preparation, the report stated:

It is here believed that the postwar period will see several states introduce [the four-year minimum requirement] for the first time, and it is hoped that they make the most of the opportunity which the change affords. The four-year minimum . . . is now a requirement for elementary certification in fifteen states and the District of Columbia. . . . Several others will be ready as soon as the teacher supply is again restored.

This statement verifies a trend which should influence the alert individual in deciding upon the amount of formal training he will take in preparing for teaching.

¹ Charles E. Prall, *State Programs for the Improvement of Teacher Education*, p. 176. Washington: American Council on Education, 1946.

According to a research bulletin of the National Education Association,² the average classroom teacher has more than three years of preparation beyond high school. In cities with populations of 2,500 or over, the median number of years of college training is 4.2 years with only 4 per cent with less than two years of preparation and 16 per cent with five or more years of preparation. In rural schools, on the other hand, approximately 62 per cent of the teachers in this country have completed less than four years of college work and 16 per cent have less than two years of advanced training beyond the high school. In city school systems, about one elementary teacher out of three is a college graduate, but in the secondary school the proportion is nine out of ten. All signs indicate that the time is not far distant when the elementary teacher with only two years of preparation and the high school teacher with only a bachelor of arts or science degree will be in the minority among the teachers of this country.

Attitude Toward Preparation

Even if the beginning teacher could be assured that his preparation met all the requirements of the more progressive school administrator, it would still be highly important for him to have an understanding of the current situation in teacher training and certification. Laws, regulations, and standards relating to the education and licensing of teachers are constantly undergoing change and revision. A teacher who today is graduated from a teacher-training institution, the program of which would be acceptable to the most progressive students of education, may, if he is not alert, find himself a few years later without certain training requirements that have in the meantime become generally recognized as essential. The constant increase in the amount of training required and the growing emphasis on specialization are unquestionably discouraging when viewed in the light of the low salaries obtainable and other undesirable conditions of the teaching profession. Nevertheless, there is ample

² *The Status of the Teaching Profession*, p. 57. Research Bulletin, National Education Association, Vol. XVIII, No. 2. Washington: Research Division, National Education Association, March, 1940.

evidence to indicate that for several years to come the requirements for entering the teaching profession will be consistently raised in all states, both with respect to the length of the training and the character of the work done. Every year literally thousands of teachers, some of them with many years of experience, find to their dismay that the certification requirements of the state in which they are working have been advanced and that the training record that they have to present is no longer regarded as acceptable. In other cases individual school systems will advance the training requirements independently of the state regulations. In either situation the teacher finds it necessary to do additional work frequently under circumstances that are far from happy. When the teacher keeps abreast of current educational conditions and is constantly aware of trends in teacher training and certification, changes may be anticipated and adjustments made gradually.

Too frequently certification laws and regulations respecting teacher preparation, which are prepared at the expense of much labor by the educational leaders of the state, are opposed by teachers whose individual interests happen to be affected. Such teachers often fail to bear in mind that the schools are operated for the children and not for teachers. Apparently, they cannot see that, in the preparation of school legislation and regulations, educational leaders and statesmen must be guided by what is best for the entire educational program and not by the interests of some particular group or individual. Their viewpoint is selfish rather than professional, and by their complaints they frequently bring considerable opposition to movements that are for the best interests of the state. Although in some instances such an attitude on the part of a teacher is the result of selfishness alone, it is more commonly occasioned by the fact that the teacher does not understand the need for a constantly improved teaching personnel, and knows little of the general practices and trends in the preparation and certification of teachers.

Kind of Preparation

It is apparent that the quality of a teacher's preparation is not measured entirely by the number of years of college work com-

pleted. Some teachers with four years of training are teaching in the elementary schools and finding that their preparation has fitted them poorly for the work they are doing. Some high school teachers are called upon to teach subjects or to handle the sponsorship of student activities in which they have little or no training. Developments are taking place in both elementary and secondary education for which the courses they have taken in education offer but meager assistance.

Fortunately, there are thousands of teachers serving the American public schools whose preparation was carefully planned in terms of the functions they were expected to perform. They were given the opportunity to become thorough students of the subjects of instruction and the young people with whom they were to work. Imbued with a sound social philosophy of education, a knowledge of the learning process, a sensitivity to the need for curriculum change, a command of method and technique, an understanding of human relations and the forces which influence social and personal living, and a concern for the growth of the whole child, they have been making an outstanding contribution to education.

Between these extremes are the great mass of teachers whose preparation fits them reasonably well for the responsibilities they have been called upon to meet, but which represents a more or less static condition detrimental to the progress which is needed in our schools. They regard their preparation as being complete for the tasks at hand when, in reality, their preparation is far behind the times. They are willing to do a sincere and conscientious job each day to the best of their ability, but their minds are closed to new ideas and the improvements that are taking place in education throughout the country.

The need is great for teachers whose preparation includes many aspects of living which go beyond the mere compliance with academic requirements. As Lewis Mumford so aptly puts it, "Those responsible for teacher education must introduce the concept of wholeness, many-sidedness, interrelatedness in every part of the teacher's curriculum and discipline . . . for society is not merely a fact to be studied, but a medium for living. And the aim of teaching, therefore, is not to produce systematic sociolo-

gists but representative social men. . . . Through the focusing of this many-sided social experience, through confident invention in the social arts, comes the hope of creating a balanced society, capable of maintaining and renewing itself, capable of enriching and deepening man's common heritage."³

CURRENT PRACTICES IN TEACHER PREPARATION

For several years there have been differences of opinion respecting the kind and amount of preparation that should be required for elementary and secondary school teachers. One group has held that a four-year program should be established as the minimum period of training for the elementary school, and another group has taken the position that two years of training is sufficient for a teacher in that unit of the school system. This latter position was based upon the idea that the elementary teacher does not need to know any subject or field very thoroughly, that the elementary school child is easier to teach, and that the low scale of salary received did not justify more than two years of training.

Those who argued for the longer period of training pointed out that the elementary teacher did not have to be a subject specialist to the same extent as a high school teacher, but that he had to know reasonably well a wide range of subjects; he was expected to teach the fundamental knowledges and skills in reading, spelling, writing, arithmetic, geography, history, language, art, music, health, nature study, elementary science, physical education, and other subjects that may be offered. It was also shown that the younger the child is, the less capable he is of directing his own learning, so that the elementary teacher must of necessity be an expert in child study, child growth, and child development as these specializations are related to the teaching and learning process. They would not minimize the importance of such expertness in high school teaching, but would propose that, if there is a difference in the difficulty of teaching at the elemen-

³Lewis Mumford, "The Social Responsibilities of Teachers," *Cultural and Social Elements in the Preparation of Teachers*, p. 49. Washington: Commission on Teacher Education, American Council on Education; Educational Policies Commission, National Education Association, 1940.

tary and high school levels, aside from the subject-matter difference, the more difficult task of the two is that performed by the elementary teacher.

In the preparation of high school teachers differences of opinion were held about the nature of college training. The position was taken for many years that four years of advanced study qualified the teacher to give instruction in any subject or field in the high school curriculum. This idea was expressed in state certification laws which authorized the issuance of a life or general certificate enabling the holder to teach anything in the high school program of studies. Concurrent with this practice, some states passed legislation requiring prospective secondary school teachers to earn a certain number of semester hours of credit in one or more subjects or fields of learning. It was believed that the high school teacher should be a specialist in what he taught. Most states now subscribe to this belief and permit the teacher to give instruction in only the subjects that are written on the face of the certificate he holds.

The recommendation for a longer training period for elementary teachers has gained favor generally throughout the country, although several states still grant teaching certificates upon the completion of two years of preparation beyond the high school. The concept of specialization in subject matter for high school teaching has enjoyed a more universal acceptance, regardless of the fact that this concept, in the thinking of many educators, is somewhat out of line with the changes that have taken place in the nature and needs of the high school population during the past 25 years. Current convictions about teacher preparation emphasize a broad basic training for teachers at all levels of the school system followed by types of specialization peculiar to recognized areas of interest.

General Education

The phrase *general education* has come to be associated with several proposed plans for giving high school and college students a broad foundation of learning for improving the quality of their living. There is relatively little that is new in the concept

or purpose of general education, though much difference may be found in the means suggested for carrying it out. Some advocates of general education would stress acquiring a command of basic skills in reading, writing, speaking, mathematics, and so on. Others would prescribe the extent and content of human knowledge regarded as being essential for all people to possess in common. A third group would have students work with problems common to our culture in such areas as home and family life, citizenship, health, consumer buying, aesthetic appreciations, and the like. The last group believes that general education should concern itself with student needs and the problems of living today. All groups are convinced that more attention should be given to a broad basic education with specialization held in abeyance until the last two years of college for those who enter institutions of higher learning.

The attention given to the need for general education has had an influence upon the programs for the preparation of elementary and secondary school teachers. The development of the four-year curriculum in normal schools and teachers colleges has shifted the emphasis from purely educational courses to general courses during the first two years, followed by professional training and specialization in the last two years. As a result, normal schools and teachers colleges are offering a curriculum similar to that found in liberal arts colleges and universities for all teachers irrespective of the grade level for which the student is preparing to teach.

After extensive study of the practices carried on in general education by normal schools, colleges, and universities, as well as the thinking expressed in conferences, the Commission on Teacher Education summarized its own judgments respecting the general education of teachers in the fourteen statements which follow:

"1. Teachers should receive the best possible general education, not only in order that they may share in what ought to be the birthright of all young Americans today, but also because to them is entrusted considerable responsibility for the general education of all young Americans tomorrow.

"2. The aim of general education should be to enable young men and women to meet effectively the most important and widespread problems of personal and social existence; in the case of prospective teachers such education should seek to further the development of knowledge, skills, attitudes, and interests that are fundamentally related to needs and responsibilities shared with contemporaries destined for other vocations.

"3. While general education may be usefully contrasted with special or vocational education, it ought not, as conducted, to ignore the implications of the special or vocational purposes of students; nor should professional education be carried on wholly without reference to students' more general needs: an integration of general and professional education should be sought.

"4. At least three-eighths of the college experience of a prospective teacher should have as its primary objectives those properly ascribable to general education.

"5. While elements of general education may well predominate during the first two college years they should neither monopolize nor be limited to this period: some educational experiences related to vocational purposes should be provided as soon as the latter are formed; and the idea that general education may be considered as 'completed' at some particular time should not be encouraged.

"6. The contemporary trend toward balance and integration in general education is significant and deserves support. This implies a basic pattern of broad courses, each developed with the special purpose of general education in mind, each requiring a fairly substantial block of time, and all planned in relation to one another.

"7. The trend toward the use of more in the way of non-verbal methods of instruction and student expression also deserves encouragement. First-hand experience, as well as motion pictures and radio, should supplement books as tools for learning, and students should be helped to express what they have learned not only in words but through the arts and social action.

"8. General education should be concerned with the body and the emotions as well as with the intellect.

"9. Students should be given a more active, responsible role in the planning and carrying out of their own general education. This implies that instruction should be flexibly administered to provide for responsiveness to individual differences.

"10. A leading aim of college programs of general, or for that matter of professional, education should be to make it probable that graduates will continue their growth in understanding and competence after they have become teachers.

"11. The development of superior programs of general education on particular campuses requires local group endeavor: faculty unity is prerequisite to curricular unity.

"12. Such shared effort should be designed to reveal and clarify existing differences of opinion, to increase general understanding of the needs of students and society, and to obtain open-minded consideration of educational thought and action as expressed and carried out elsewhere.

"13. Helpful in facilitating improvements in general education have been faculty group discussions, special studies, interviews with students and alumni, community and service-area surveys, visits to schools and to other colleges, use of consultants, and participation in general education workshops.

"14. Willingness to sanction the testing of new ideas respecting education by experimental-minded staff members working with special groups of students has often helped to resolve differences of speculative opinion and led to an extension of sound reforms."⁴

Subject-Matter Specialization

As a part of a program in general education, attention should be given to the selection of introductory courses in the subject or field of specialization the student wishes to teach. This is necessary in order to accumulate sufficient credit hours for meeting

⁴ *The Improvement of Teacher Education*, pp. 82-84. A Final Report by the Commission on Teacher Education. Washington: American Council on Education, 1946.

state certification standards as well as college requirements for graduation. Usually a large part of the third and fourth years are given over to concentration in a field of specialization.

Even though an accrediting association such as the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools recognizes 15 semester hours of credit as a minimum for a given teaching assignment, many states insist upon 18 semester hours of credit, whereas some colleges and universities will not recommend a candidate for a teaching position who has earned less than 40 semester hours of credit in a field of specialization. Perhaps a desirable medium is to be found somewhere between these extremes, yet the demands upon teachers today suggest that the emphasis should be more toward greater knowledge in the field of the student's preference.

Frequently too heavy a concentration in one field, however, to the exclusion of the other fields, reduces the teacher's chances of placement in a competitive employment market. It is considered wiser for the beginning teacher to complete his specialization not only in a major field but also to become certified in another field where the accumulation of course credits is adequate for meeting state requirements. By having more than one field of teaching to offer for employment purposes, he increases his opportunities for placement, especially in smaller high schools where most teachers carry assignments in at least two different instructional fields.

The same considerations respecting specialization apply to the junior high school and elementary school, although specialization in the elementary school is less intensive because the program of preparation covers a much wider range of subjects. The recognition given to grades seven and eight as a part of the secondary school, irrespective of whether these grades are a part of an elementary or a junior high school, has created the need for specialization by teachers who are assigned to these grades. At the same time, the trend in elementary education has emphasized the need for specialization in several different areas. Industrial arts, music, fine arts, counseling, remedial reading, early childhood education, and language arts, among others, call for a fair

degree of specialization which was not common to the traditional elementary school.

Professional Preparation

Specialization in subject-matter fields must be accompanied by preparation in the art and science of guiding the learning activities of the children and youth with whom the teacher works. In the past, too much emphasis was placed upon educational courses in the training of elementary teachers and too little upon the preparation of teachers for the secondary school. Today, even though there is a general lack of uniformity among states in the professional preparation of teachers, there is rather general agreement in practice that the student should have an integrated and balanced program of academic and professional work.

In the average teacher-training institution, students are required to take courses in educational psychology, practice teaching, general or special methods of teaching, principles of education, with electives in a wide range of offerings which include history of education, curriculum development, philosophy of education, tests and measurements, organization and administration, classroom management, educational sociology, guidance, and extracurricular activities.

There is little evidence to show that current practices in teacher preparation are successful. Requirements are based largely upon the subjective opinions of those responsible for administering the programs and the recommendations found in state certification laws. The accumulation of a prescribed number of credits is accepted as being adequate for the professional training of the teacher, even though no general agreement exists as to what courses should be taken.

In the judgment of some educators more concern should be shown for the total effect that preparation has upon the prospective teacher. Account should be taken of the student's outlook on life, the breadth of his cultural vision, and the competencies he possesses for becoming an effective worker with children and youth. He should be able to demonstrate his fitness to make an effective adjustment in the particular area of professional service

he has selected. More specifically still, he should be familiar with (1) the physical factors of the environment which constantly condition the problem of living; (2) the social environment in which problems arise from man's efforts to live in co-operative relationship with his fellow men; (3) his own ability to make an adjustment to the physical and social environment; (4) the various media that man has developed to give effective expression to his thoughts and emotions; (5) the place of education in society today and the organized expressions of education to influence man's development from childhood through maturity; (6) the functions of elementary or secondary education and the means created to control the development of children and youth; and (7) the nature of childhood or adolescence and the characteristics of growth at these stages of human development.⁵

The realization of these ends, in the preparation of teachers, cannot be assured through the accumulation of course credits alone. They are the result of experiences gained through professional courses, participation in a wide range of community and school activities, an intelligent evaluation and a systematic planning to strengthen personal weakness and to broaden spheres of interest needed for teaching, a continuous sensitivity and constructive approach to problems in human relations, careful observations of children and youth under varying conditions, and many other considerations entering into the total growth and professional competency of the teacher.

Student Activities

In almost all elementary and secondary schools, emphasis is placed upon pupil participation in activities commonly regarded as being outside of the regular curriculum. Provision is made for musical organizations, forensic contests, dramatics, participation in school government, hobby clubs, school publications and a host of other rich and varied experiences.

⁵ Adapted from a statement of policy underlying the teacher-education program of the Division of Secondary Education, Teachers College, Temple University.

The responsibility for directing these activities is usually assigned as a part of the teacher's load. Many beginning teachers find to their own amazement how poorly equipped they are to assume leadership to assist pupils in the activity program. Many are prone to indict the institution from which they were graduated for failure to prepare them for this phase of school work.

That teacher-training institutions fail in this respect is generally conceded. However, a student wishing to receive experience in several fields of extracurricular activities can usually find an abundant opportunity in the college or university he is attending. All kinds of student clubs and organizations exist which provide excellent training under competent direction for learning the skills required in a given activity such as dramatics, public speaking, or journalism. Similar opportunities may be found in churches, young people's organizations, social agencies, and private groups throughout the community.

In planning preparation for teaching, the student who includes a range of extracurricular activities in his four-year schedule not only improves his competencies for teaching but also extends his understanding of personal and social relationships; he becomes a more balanced person. Unless he has the ability to direct his own improvement, it is difficult to see how he can effectively work with and direct the development of pupils in school.

Student and Intern Teaching

It is now a rather general requirement that the student shall have directed or practice teaching before he receives his license to teach. To facilitate this arrangement, some teachers colleges maintain their own elementary and secondary schools where directed teaching is done under the constructive guidance of a critic teacher to whom the student is assigned for a specified period of time during his junior or senior year of college. In other instances, the student is placed with a competent public school teacher and supervised from time to time by a representative of the training institution, who also meets periodically with the student and the teacher for the discussion of problems and experiences growing out of the practice teaching.

A few training institutions now provide for a more practical type of directed teaching by assigning the student to a selected teacher in a community away from the campus. The student lives in the community for a quarter or a semester of the academic year and reports for full-time work daily to the school to which he has been assigned. There he follows the teacher's schedule from the beginning until the close of the school day, assisting in all phases of the work with pupils, learning how the school operates, and taking part in the activities of the school and the community.

Prior to World War II, attention was given by some teacher-training institutions to an internship arrangement for teachers corresponding to that required for prospective physicians. Where this was tried, the student, upon the completion of his training program, took a position as an intern teacher in a public school. He was paid a nominal salary sufficient to meet the normal expenses of living. Assigned to one or more outstanding teachers during the period of internship, he gradually assumed complete responsibility for all phases of school work, including the teaching of a full roster, managing a homeroom, directing extracurricular activities, keeping records and making reports, handling disciplinary cases, counseling individual students, taking faculty committee assignments, participating in curriculum study projects, and doing other things required of regular faculty members. If his work was highly satisfactory, he was either employed by the school system where his internship was taken or he was given a recommendation for employment elsewhere. Usually, beginning teachers who undertook the internship program gained experiences that contributed greatly to their professional careers. There is good reason to believe that this type of directed teaching will be revived again when the supply of teachers permits.

Summary

In the preceding discussion of current practices in teacher education, certain definite trends are apparent which the prospective teacher should consider. First, there is every evidence that the

amount of preparation required has been increased and will continue to increase for several years to come. Second, there appears to be a definite tendency toward liberalizing the education of teachers through a broad general education that better equips teachers for understanding present-day living and the problems growing out of it and faced in the school and the community. Third, emphasis is being placed on specialization in terms of the type of position to be filled. Fourth, the growing emphasis on professional courses has shifted away from theory to practice. Although the theoretical approach to education is not likely to be abandoned, preparation for extracurricular activities, child study under school conditions, student teaching, participation in community affairs, and intern teaching are assuming greater importance.

COMPETENCIES DESIRED IN TEACHERS

The teacher's influence upon the character and development of the pupil and the growing role of the school as a dynamic social institution naturally raises the question of the qualifications, both personal and professional, that are needed by teachers today. In the traditional school, teaching qualifications were limited largely to the possession of certain desirable personal traits, a command of subject matter, and a knowledge of classroom method and technique. This concept of teaching has given way to a broader concern for the teacher as a person, a member of a profession, and a citizen of the community. Many competencies are now desired in teachers to which prospective members of the profession should give careful attention.

The Commission's Recommendation

After an exhaustive study of the qualities needed by teachers for the modern school, the Commission on Teacher Education made the following recommendation:

"1. Respect for personality—treating all other human beings as persons whose purposes demand consideration and whose potentialities deserve encouragement; respecting self and respecting

others; understanding those with whom they are associated, learning from them, and evoking their aid to thought and action.

"2. Community-mindedness—seeking out opportunities for making various kinds of contributions to the well-being of the community; being able to establish friendly relations with the people of the community and adapting behavior to local mores and conventions; genuine community membership.

"3. Rational behavior—being able to deal rationally with personal and professional problems; acting upon knowledge; maintaining good physical and emotional health; being able to express clearly and accurately what is seen, felt, and heard.

"4. Skill in co-operation—being able to collaborate with others in thinking, choosing, and acting in response to a total, changing situation.

"5. Increasing knowledge—having a broad background of information as well as a considerable acquaintance with the fields of learning most closely allied to particular specializations; maintaining high standards of scholarship in definite grades, subjects, or fields free from the danger of uniformity; learning continuously; knowing where and how to obtain more knowledge.

"6. Skill in mediating knowledge—using one's knowledge in helping others to acquire knowledge; helping pupils to grow in understanding and to fit each new item of learning into an expanding pattern that has rich personal meanings.

"7. Friendliness with children—seeing children as fellow human beings, free and equal in the ultimate sense of those terms; carrying on a favorable relationship with children and understanding their natures and potentialities; practicing wise and objective, not sentimental and uncritical, friendliness.

"8. Understanding children—having understanding and insight regarding human growth and development; exercising good judgment regarding the needs of children at different stages of development, their readiness for particular kinds of learning, and the ways whereby they can be helped most effectively.

"9. Social understanding and behavior—having more than an ordinary understanding of society, its problems, trends, and pos-

sibilities; supporting a sound social philosophy with a grasp of the facts and relationships of contemporary social existence; encouraging loyalty to the ends to which our culture is dedicated, and striving to extend the knowledge that is basic for informed social action.

"10. Good citizenship in the school—functioning as a good citizen within the school; sharing responsibility with other teachers and administrators for educational planning within a particular school; setting an example for pupils of purposeful, effective, democratic co-operation.

"11. Skill in evaluation—knowing the purposes for which education is carried on and checking continually upon their accomplishment; understanding the techniques of evaluation and being able to use them intelligently; encouraging children to define their goals and helping them to secure evidence of how well they are attaining those goals.

"12. Faith in the worth of teaching—having a conviction that skillful teaching is essential to the preservation and improvement of our culture; refusing at any cost to be untrue to their own high standards."

The Commission concludes its statement about the qualities desired in teachers by saying, "Good teachers must always vary as to the pattern of qualities that accounts for the excellence of each. Good teachers, in other words, are never exactly alike, and any notion that uniformity should be sought after in their education is unrealistic and dangerous. . . . It is the balance of qualities that counts."⁶

THE COMMISSION ON TEACHER EDUCATION

Reference has been made frequently throughout this chapter to the Commission on Teacher Education. Because of its importance in the current program of teacher training, a brief description will be given of the purposes, work, and recommendations of the Commission.

⁶ Commission on Teacher Education, *Teachers For Our Times*, pp. 173-74. Washington: American Council on Education, 1944.

Purposes

Many intensive studies of education have been carried on during the last two decades. All these studies carried implications for the improvement of teaching and of teacher education. With a single exception however, none of these studies made teacher education a problem of major concern. As a result, the American Council on Education, in January 1936, consulted the representatives of many school systems, colleges, universities, state departments of education, and educational associations. They were asked about the advisability of launching a national study of teacher education. The results of this inquiry showed many types of problems needing attention and resulted in a recommendation that a special commission be established to study the area of teacher education.

With financial support provided by the General Education Board, the American Council on Education created the Commission on Teacher Education two years after the initial investigation of the need for the study had been made. Sixteen men and women were selected from all parts of the country to constitute this new agency. They included presidents of colleges, deans, department heads, professors, representatives of the United States Office of Education and a state department of public instruction, a city superintendent of schools, and a research specialist in child growth and development. Later, staff members having competent backgrounds of training and experience were selected to undertake the work of the Commission.

As stated in its first declaration of policy, the Commission set out to "provide opportunities for those concerned with teacher education to think and work together." It held fast to the principle that each group taking part in the study should determine its own purposes, analyze the particular situation with which it was working, and evaluate its own program. Accordingly, it became the function of the Commission to render service on call for any group participating in the study. Naturally, the Commission emphasized in its deliberations, conferences, and services the similarity of problems and practices related to

teacher education. A good deal of emphasis, however, was placed upon any problem concerned with the education of teachers "from the time they determine to enter the profession to the time they withdraw from it."

Work

The nation-wide co-operative study of teacher education got under way in September, 1939, and was completed in June, 1942. Fifty different groups took part in the study consisting of universities, colleges, and systems of public schools. Each developed its own plan of working on the problem. To this initial undertaking was added a series of co-operative studies in individual states which started early in 1940 and ended in June, 1943.

Although the Commission did not try to impose its own ideas as to how teacher education should be improved, it did provide assistance to institutions and groups associated with the study. Four field co-ordinators were sent out as general consultants. One of these co-ordinators worked with states in facilitating the work they were doing. A division on child growth and development offered field services and maintained a collaboration center where research materials were brought together for study. Representatives from various institutions came together at this center and developed plans for the improvement of programs of their respective institutions.

A division on evaluation was likewise created for rendering consultant services in the field. A large number of special consultants were used in various ways to supplement further the regular staff services in evaluation, child growth and development, and other phases of the program.

An interchange of information about progress in the study was handled through a special division, and a monthly newsletter was published along with books, pamphlets, and mimeographed materials.

In addition to these activities of the Commission, many working conferences were held, workshop advisory services instituted, and means provided for representatives of co-operating units to travel in order to study and observe programs regarded as being likely to offer help and suggestion.

Recommendations

The findings, conclusions, and recommendations of the Commission appear in a series of published reports to which reference has been made throughout this chapter. To all who are interested in teacher education, they contain a wealth of valuable information. For our immediate purpose, the chief conclusions of the Commission respecting the preparation of teachers are as follows:

"1. The improvement of teacher preparation depends immediately on the capacity, understanding, and cooperativeness of those charged with its conduct at particular colleges and universities. Every effort, then, should be made to strengthen faculties, extend participation in the realistic study of the job jointly to be done, encourage coordination of effort, and support the continuous evaluation of programs as well as experimental efforts to better them. This implies the employment of democratic procedures calculated to facilitate the steady in-service growth of the teachers of teachers.

"2. Whatever increases a faculty's sense of shared responsibility for teacher preparation, and its stock of common understanding of the factors to be considered, is likely to increase the unity of an institution or program and lead to added effectiveness. In the cooperative study the development of personnel programs in which many instructors learned how to counsel students respecting personal, academic, and vocational problems—all three—helped in this connection. So did firsthand study of the schools and teachers in service and their actual problems, study participated in by both subject-matter professors and educationists. Joint study of the communities served was also helpful.

"3. The use of consultants—including college and university experts, state department officials, school administrators, and experienced teachers—proved helpful, as did visits to schools and to other colleges where outstanding practices might be observed. Also of definite value were participation in work conferences, workshops, and statewide cooperative studies.

"4. The most effective way of making steady improvement was that which combined continuous attention to fundamental

institutional purposes and policies with the use of concentrated spearhead attacks at a succession of particular points. The latter were especially fruitful when they had broad implications and when these were carefully developed.

"5. The most effective and justifiable recruiting and selective processes are those that consider a variety of factors together, that concern themselves with the guidance of the student as well as with the welfare of children and of society, that enable the individual to share in the responsibilities of decision, and that provide for periodical reconsideration of the wisdom of previous decisions. Prospective teachers should be superior specimens of the culture, but it ought to be recognized that good teachers may represent various combinations of talent, background, and interest.

"6. Teachers adequate for our times cannot be prepared in less than four collegiate years. The trend toward five-year programs for both secondary and elementary school teachers deserves encouragement where practical considerations permit it to operate, and this without distinction as to whether these persons are to teach in urban or rural communities.

"7. So far as possible all educational experiences provided as elements in a program of teacher preparation should be planned with reference to each other so that they may combine to meet effectively the personal, social, and vocational needs of students. Unity and continuity of program should be striven for.

"8. The primary objectives of at least three-eighths of the undergraduate work of prospective teachers should be those properly ascribable to general education. It is undesirable that this part of a student's work should be concentrated in the freshman and sophomore years on the assumption that general education may be "completed" during this period, or with the consequence that attention to professional concerns must be postponed until a later time. Instruction primarily designed for general education should give attention to any implications of its subject matter for professional development. The reverse holds equally true.

"9. Advanced subject-matter instruction for teachers should

exhibit the highest standards of scholarship. Offerings in a particular field should, however, be planned and conducted with informed reference to the tasks that prospective teachers eventually will be called upon to perform. This should result in more attention to the interrelations of departmentalized subjects and to practical implications for personal and social well-being.

"10. The study of human growth and development, particularly during childhood and adolescence, should constitute one of the basic elements in the professional preparation of teachers. This implies attention both to a synthesis of materials drawn from various biological, psychological, and social sciences and also to the cases of particular individuals.

"11. Of comparable importance in teacher education is the study of the nature and problems of community and broader social existence. Instruction should aim not only at comprehension but also at developing the impulse to share in social action and skill in so doing. Informed social purpose and intelligent social participation are particularly desirable in teachers. Acquaintance with rural communities and their problems is especially indicated when teachers are likely to begin their professional work in such communities.

"12. Understanding of the arts and facility in nonverbal expression should also receive greater emphasis in teacher-preparatory programs.

"13. The organization of general education and of the professional part of the preparatory program into relatively large blocks of time, with a conscious effort to increase integration, continuity, and flexibility, is more likely to prove effective than the use of a larger number of separately specialized short courses.

"14. With the lengthening of the customary period of teacher preparation the importance of providing students with direct experiences in relation to classroom study has increased. Special attention should be given to enabling prospective teachers to study children, schools, and communities at first hand, not merely to observe them but to work with them with some appropriate degree of responsibility. Such opportunity should begin fairly early in the preparatory program and be continued in

complementary relation to a variety of classroom experiences. Campus-school facilities and those that may be provided through suitable arrangements with nearby public schools should be fully capitalized in this connection. Available opportunities for prospective teachers to work with children away from school should be employed.

"15. It is particularly important that programs of teacher education should contribute throughout to the development and strengthening of democratic powers. These notably include the ability to think, feel, and act for oneself and also capacity to work effectively as one of a group. Consequently, professional preparation should consistently enable prospective teachers to share responsibility in planning and carrying out their own educational programs and provide them with regular experience in cooperative endeavor.

"16. Student teaching is a most important part of the preparation of teachers. It should come near the close of the college or university course, and should be carefully prepared for by faculty members acquainted with the prospective student-teaching situations. Such preparation will be facilitated when a campus school is available or, alternatively, a neighboring public school over which the institution shares control whereby proper supervision and direction can be guaranteed. However, it is most desirable for prospective teachers to have a culminating experience of full-time work in representative off-campus schools, especially in rural schools if that is where first regular teaching experience is likely to be. Up to eight or nine weeks may profitably be so employed.

"17. Student teaching should provide opportunities not merely to carry on instruction but also to become acquainted with the children, the staff, the life, and the problems of the whole school in which the experience is had. Students should live in the community if possible and have time to study it and participate in its activities. The college should provide students with guidance during their time in the field, and on their return they should be enabled to compare their experience and to discuss its implications with various staff members.

"18. The entire program of teacher preparation, including extracurricular experiences, should be designed to facilitate the balanced growth of the prospective teacher as a whole person. Fundamental concern with assuring his professional effectiveness is far from justifying neglect of other aspects of his total development. The effective teacher is an effective citizen.

"19. Strictly professional elements should be allocated from one-eighth to one-sixth of the time available in a four- or five-year program of teacher preparation. It is to be recognized that there will be doubt as to whether some important elements should be classified as general or as professional education, and that acceptable integrations may be worked out that cause the professional block to *appear* to exceed or to fall short of this proportion.

"20. Evaluation should play an important role in pre-service teacher education. Prospective teachers should learn to evaluate their own strengths and weaknesses and to help children and young people to do the same. They should learn to appraise the effectiveness of teaching procedures as a means to the continuous improvement of their own work. And college staffs should be constantly employing evaluative techniques for the same reason.

"21. The placement of graduates is a responsibility that should be jointly shared in by the colleges and universities, the students themselves, and the school systems. The same is true of planning follow-up arrangements. Both, therefore, call for the cultivation of cordial cooperative relationships between schools and colleges as well as full respect for the individuals involved.

"22. The importance of continuous give and take between college faculties and the staffs of representative schools is so great as to deserve special emphasis. In this way the college program can be checked at every point as to its effectiveness for teacher preparation. In this way, also, the schools can be kept in constant touch with valuable resources for the steady improvement of their own programs and the systematic facilitation of professional growth on the part of their personnel."⁷

⁷ *The Improvement of Teacher Education*, pp. 112-117. Commission on Teacher Education. Washington: American Council on Education, 1946.

These conclusions offer rich suggestion which the prospective teacher can advisedly consider in evaluating his own preparation for teaching and in planning a course of action that results in personal growth and development for meeting fully the demands of a growing profession.

RELATED READINGS

Armstrong, W. Earl, Hollis, Ernest V., and Davis, Helen E., *The College and Teacher Education*. Washington: American Council on Education, 1944.

One of a series of reports prepared by staff members of the Commission on Teacher Education. Contains several interesting chapters on various programs respecting teacher education in different parts of the country.

Baruch, Dorothy W., "Preparation of Teachers for Early Childhood Education," *California Journal of Elementary Education*, VII: 114-118. November, 1938.

Suggests ten considerations which should be respected in the education of teachers for early childhood education.

Bigelow, Karl W., "Preparing Teachers for the Secondary School of the Future," *The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, 28:25-35. March, 1942.

Directs attention to the changes that are taking place in secondary education and the kinds of teachers who will be needed in future secondary schools.

Bigelow, Karl W., "The Future and Teacher Education," *Teachers College Record*, 47:387-95. March, 1946.

A summary of the final statement of the Commission on Teacher Education.

Butterweck, Joseph S., "Wanted: A New Teacher," *School and College Placement*, 6:16-18. May, 1946.

Shows how changes in the high school curriculum calls for a different type of teacher training in the liberal arts colleges.

Commission on Teacher Education, *Teachers for Our Times*. Washington: American Council on Education, 1944.

The four chapters comprising this book offer an abundance of material which should be of interest to prospective teachers. The problems of American life are touched upon together with

the services of the schools to children and the qualities needed in teachers to do the job which has fallen upon the school.

Cultural and Social Elements in the Education of Teachers. Washington: Commission on Teacher Education; American Council on Education; Educational Policies Commission, National Education Association, 1940.

Two addresses delivered at the Bennington Planning Conference of the Commission on Teacher Education which point up the issues for the role of citizen-teachers in our times.

Goetting, M. L., *Teaching in the Secondary School*, Chaps. 1, 2. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1942.

Discusses the nature of teaching and the importance of the teacher.

Paths To Better Schools, Twenty-Third Yearbook, American Association of School Administrators, Chap. VI. Washington: National Education Association, 1945.

Outlines the problem of who shall teach, their selection, training, recognition, and continued growth in service.

Pral, Charles E., *State Programs for the Improvement of Teacher Education*, Parts II, III. Washington: American Council on Education, 1946.

Describes state programs developed in co-operation with the Commission on Teacher Education relative to the general education of teachers and the professional education of teachers.

Russell, William F., "A Century of Teacher Education," *Teachers College Record*, XLI:481-92. March, 1940.

Reviews the progress made in teacher education and the problems that must be met in the future.

Taylor, Louis, "Teacher Training for Successful Community Living," *School and Society*, 62:108-109. August 18, 1945.

Recommends that teachers know the community, discover its needs, and become practical workers for its improvement.

The Improvement of Teacher Education, Chap. II. A Final Report by the Commission on Teacher Education. Washington: American Council on Education, 1946.

Summarizes the work and findings of the Commission on the improvement of teacher education.

Troyer, Maurice E. and Pace, C. Robert, *Evaluation in Teacher Education*, Washington: American Council on Education, 1944.

Several pertinent chapters are to be found in this volume of the reports by the Commission on Teacher Education. They cover the selection, orientation and education required for teachers for schools of today.

Vaeth, J. Gordon, "What Makes A Successful Teacher," *Education*, 66:165-69. November, 1945.

Emphasizes several competencies needed in teachers who undertake responsibilities which go beyond textbooks, chalk, and erasers.

Chapter 6

SECURING A POSITION

ANNUALLY THOUSANDS of young men and women who are about to complete courses of instruction that will admit them to the teaching profession turn to experienced members of this profession with the query, "How shall I go about obtaining a teaching position?"

During World War II the answer to such a question was not difficult. The supply of candidates for teaching positions was exceeded by the demand for teachers. Under such conditions any individual of good character who could qualify for a certificate was almost certain to obtain a position within a relatively short time by merely letting it be generally known that he was legally qualified to teach and was interested in doing so. The position sought the teacher. Today the demand for teachers is still greater than the supply of qualified personnel. This relationship will unquestionably change within a few years. Those who are now preparing for teaching may find it necessary to seek positions after they graduate and to present themselves skillfully and intelligently to employment officials.

It is entirely possible that employment conditions may parallel those which existed in the 1930's when it was exceedingly difficult for competent teachers to secure placement. At that time the general oversupply of teachers was due to a number of causes. In many instances, teacher-training institutions had been overzealous in building up their enrollments without proper consideration of the relationship between supply and demand. The gradual improvement in salary levels that was made up until 1929, the increase in qualifications, and the improved professional status of the work all served to attract into the teaching profes-

sion young men and women who otherwise would have entered other vocations. Finally, during the years of the depression hundreds of men and women who had been engaged in or were planning to engage in other types of work turned to teaching when they found positions in their preferred vocations no longer available.

True, there has seldom been a general oversupply of properly qualified teachers. If all teaching positions were filled by teachers with training of a quantity and quality recognized as standard by students of education, there would be few places where the supply would greatly exceed the demand, and in many communities there would unquestionably be a shortage of teachers.

However, to the young man or woman interested in obtaining a teaching position, the important consideration is not the number of teachers who are qualified according to proper educational standards, but the number that are actually competitors for positions. As long as school trustees, boards of education, and other employing officials continue to appoint teachers on bases other than those directly related to teaching efficiency, any individual holding a legal certificate may be considered a competitor for a teaching position. Where such employment practices are general or relatively frequent throughout a state, the supply of teachers is measured by the number of individuals who hold legal certificates and who are interested in securing positions. When defined in this manner, the supply may eventually exceed the demand, and in many localities the discrepancy may be large enough to produce a serious problem.

Under any circumstances it would be desirable for the prospective teacher to be acquainted with the procedures that are commonly employed in the selection and placement of teachers. A prospective oversupply of candidates for teaching positions makes such knowledge almost imperative. The competition for positions can become so keen that unless the applicant is familiar with the policies and practices of employing officials, and is prepared to set forth his qualifications in the most favorable light, his chances of securing a position frequently can be remote even when the preparation of the applicant equals or exceeds approved

standards. Moreover, the profession itself will benefit from intelligent action on the part of prospective teachers in applying for positions. Unprofessional practices in the employment of teachers will never be eliminated until teachers themselves lend support to ethical procedures. Boards of education and other employing officials will be inclined to handle the problem of teacher selection in a professional manner whenever teachers refuse to conduct their share of the business on any other basis. From the standpoint of both the individual and the profession, then, it is highly important that prospective teachers become familiar with the principles and practices that should govern their employment.

SELECTION OF TEACHERS

Recognized authorities in the field of school administration advocate that teachers and other school employees be selected and nominated by the professional head of the school system. This head is in most cases the superintendent of schools. Experience has shown that the most effective personnel will be maintained when the activities of boards of education or school trustees in the appointment of personnel are restricted to the approval of nominations made by the superintendent or other professional head of the school system. This does not mean that the board of education is to be without authority in the appointment of teachers. Any board of education, as the representative of the people, should have the right to reject a nomination of the superintendent and to ask him to make a substitute nomination. In practice, however, the nature of the task for the most part precludes any activity on the part of the board other than the formal approval of the superintendent's nominations, unless the board of education assumes responsibilities for which it is totally unfitted.

It is not difficult to see why students of school administration advocate that the selection and appointment of the teaching personnel be a responsibility of the superintendent rather than a responsibility of the board of education or one of its members. As was indicated in the preceding chapter, the problem of teacher preparation and certification is a technical one. As a

consequence, it is virtually impossible for any individual, other than a professionally trained schoolman, to evaluate the preparation that is submitted by a candidate for a teaching position. With respect to the mere amount of preparation, an untrained person might make a fairly reliable decision but, upon the character or quality of the training, such an individual is in almost every case totally unfitted to pass judgment. How, for example, can a person act with any large degree of intelligence in the selection of a teacher who does not know what is being taught at the school level at which the teacher is to work or why it is being taught, who does not even know the meaning of the technical terms used in teacher preparation and certification, and who has had no experience in judging those intangible qualities that enter into teaching success and that are in no degree reflected in a transcript of credits? The only basis upon which a teacher should be selected is the estimated efficiency with which he will perform all the duties assigned him, and predicting efficiency is precarious enough even when the task is performed by one of wide professional training and experience.

The principle advocated in the preceding paragraphs suggests to the candidate for a teaching position one important rule that should be adhered to in making an application. Without exception, it is the duty of the teacher to make the original application for a position to the professional head of the school system in which he is seeking employment.¹ In nearly all cases this individual will be designated the superintendent of schools. Even when the applicant is certain that the superintendent has little or no voice in the selection and placement of teachers, the same procedure should be followed. The teacher has nothing to lose by observing this principle and the interests of the profession are thereby promoted. If the superintendent is a mere figurehead, he will refer the applicant to the board member or other individual who has usurped his authority and the teacher will have suffered no serious disadvantage. However, observance of the principle will have a beneficial effect. The superintendent will

¹ It is recognized that this principle cannot be applied in a district or township system where trustees are solely responsible for teacher appointments.

be impressed with the idea that even young people, who have had no experience, are aware that he should be selecting and nominating his teachers; board members who have unknowingly or intentionally usurped the responsibility of the superintendent will sense the fact that the members of the teaching profession prefer and expect to deal with the superintendent of schools; and the teacher himself will have had the satisfaction of having observed the ethics of the profession.

Were all teachers to refuse to make original applications for positions to anyone other than the superintendent of schools, the time might soon arrive when the vast majority of appointments would be made by men capable of evaluating a teacher's preparation. Then and then only will teachers be selected wholly on the basis of relevant factors.

PLACEMENT PRACTICES

How is the list of applicants for a teaching position made up? The candidate who can answer this question has a distinct advantage over the person who is unacquainted with the procedure ordinarily followed by trained schoolmen. The superintendent, or the one to whom he may delegate the task of teacher selection,² has only a limited number of sources from which he can make up a list of candidates for consideration. These sources, in the order which they are most likely to be emphasized, may be enumerated as follows:

1. Teachers or prospective teachers with whom the superintendent is acquainted.
2. Teachers or prospective teachers contacted through professional acquaintances.
3. Candidates enrolled with professional placement bureaus.
4. Candidates enrolled with commercial teachers' agencies.
5. Candidates who make unsolicited applications.

As a rule, superintendents have had several years of experience in educational work and, during that time, have made a wide

² In a large city school system, the selection of teachers may be delegated to an assistant superintendent in charge of personnel, or the special director of employment, and in many instances principals are given a voice in the selection of their teachers.

circle of professional acquaintances. By one means or another they have come to know a number of teachers whose work in particular fields is generally recognized as superior. It is to these people that their attention is directed first when vacancies occur. Most superintendents prefer to solicit their own applications, and if they are able to find among their acquaintances persons who are in every way properly qualified they are quite likely to ignore all other candidates for positions. Although this procedure penalizes the teacher of limited acquaintance and the teacher with little or no experience, it is commendable from the standpoint of the profession, for it tends to insure promotion for those teachers who are doing superior work.

If the superintendent is unable to select from among the teachers of his acquaintance one suitable for the position, he is likely to turn next to those persons who are recommended to him by his professional friends. These professional friends include other superintendents, principals, heads of teacher-training institutions, and the instructors in such institutions. The suggestions and recommendations made by these people arise, in a majority of cases, from professional motives, and are therefore to be relied upon. They may be made in the course of an informal conversation or as a result of a formal request for assistance; but in any case the persons mentioned are likely to be given more consideration than any applicants other than those actually known by the superintendent. The inexperienced teacher is not so much at a disadvantage where this procedure is followed, since it is a practice for representatives of teacher-training institutions to encourage consideration of students who appear likely to develop into superior teachers.

Professional Placement Bureaus

If the superintendent has had many years of experience and has made wide professional contacts, he may depend almost wholly on the informal procedures just described in making up a list of candidates for a teaching position. This is likely to be true when the community has an oversupply of well-trained teachers. However, it is often necessary for the employing offi-

cer to seek other sources in preparing a list of candidates. Under such conditions he is likely to make use of a professional placement bureau or a commercial teachers' agency.

Professional placement bureaus are operated in connection with educational institutions and, in most cases, serve the teaching group represented without charge. This is true in the majority of teacher-training institutions having professional placement bureaus because the institutions are interested in finding teaching positions for their graduates.

According to Minnick, a professional placement bureau has two functions to perform: "First, it should locate the vacancies for which candidates are to be recommended. . . . Second, the placement service is responsible for placing a candidate's qualifications before an employer in such a way as to induce him to follow up the case with a careful investigation of the candidate's fitness for the vacancy in question. To this end, the placement service should collect, organize, and make easily accessible, information concerning each candidate."³

When enrolling with a placement bureau, the candidate will usually be given one or more forms to be filled out for filing with the bureau. These forms resemble the application blanks employed by superintendents and call for approximately the same information. The bureau may ask that confidential letters of reference be written to the head of the bureau to be filed with the other forms that make up the applicant's credentials, as they are called. If this procedure is followed, it is the business of the candidate to select the people who are to write these letters of reference and to ask them to perform this service. The references may take the form of an ordinary letter, or they may be written on blanks especially prepared for that purpose. When the bureau is a part of a teacher-training institution, the critic teacher who has supervised the student teaching of the applicant will usually be asked to prepare a letter of reference or to fill out a special form. An application-size photograph of the candidate is also required.

³ John H. Minnick, "New Techniques of Teacher Placement," *School and College Placement*, 2:20, December, 1941.

The professional bureau contacts the superintendent of schools or other employing officer and encourages him to give consideration to the registered applicants whenever there is a vacancy to be filled. The interested employer is assisted by the bureau in locating applicants fitted for various positions, and arrangements are made for interviews. After the original contacts are made the work of the bureau is largely ended unless the employer is unable to find among the candidates recommended a person fitted for the position.

Forms typical of those used in professional placement bureaus which ask for personal data, education and certification data, evidences of teaching success, and confidential recommendations are shown in Figures 19 and 20.⁴

Commercial Agencies

Commercial teachers' agencies differ from the professional placement bureaus in several important respects. These agencies are usually established in large population centers and lack the close contact with the teacher-training program that is maintained by the professional placement bureaus. They are operated primarily as a business and only secondarily as a benefit to the profession. Commercial agencies must charge a fee sufficiently large to insure a profit, whereas professional bureaus may omit all charges or reduce the fee to an amount just large enough to maintain the service. In a majority of cases, professional bureaus maintain a closer personal contact with candidates for positions and are more interested in seeing that the teachers they recommend fit particular positions.

However, in making these comparisons, there is no intention of implying that commercial agencies are unprofessional in their methods and practices or that they are interested only in profits. Many of the old and well-established agencies are headed by men who have been successful as teachers and administrators and who are as zealous about maintaining high professional standards as are the directors of professional bureaus. There is no stigma at-

⁴ These are similar in content and form to the application blanks used by school administrators.

tached to the use of the commercial agency as a means of securing employment, and there is no reason why the candidate for a teaching position should hesitate to seek the assistance of a commercial agency whenever it appears that other means—usually more effective and less expensive—are likely to fail. However, the inexperienced person should be warned that all agencies are not equally reliable or equally effective in their methods. Consequently, the applicant should deal only with those with established reputations and those recommended by persons of long experience in the profession.

Some agencies attempt to serve only certain states or areas; others have several branch offices and solicit business throughout the entire country. Almost all agencies attempt the placement of teachers at all levels of the school system and in all types of positions. A few, however, emphasize certain special phases of educational service.

When the applicant indicates his desire to make use of the services of a commercial agency, he is furnished with a registration blank and a contract, usually on the same form. The contract states the terms under which the agency is to help the candidate in securing a position and when signed by the latter is legally binding. The more important items usually contained in these contracts may be summarized as follows:

1. The applicant is to pay a registration fee when he enrolls with the agency. This fee varies with the agency, but is most frequently two dollars. In some cases this fee entitles the applicant to continuous registration and in others for a limited period, usually for one or two years. Some agencies vary the registration fee in accordance with the number of branch offices in which the applicant's credentials are filed.
2. In case of appointment, the registrant agrees to pay the agency a certain per cent of his first year's salary. In nearly all cases this commission is 5 per cent.
3. The placement fee is payable as soon as the teacher has definitely contracted for the position. However, some provision is usually made for the teacher to pay a portion of the commission and to give an interest-bearing note for the remainder.

4. A higher rate of commission is frequently charged for substitute work, and a levy is usually made on the second year's salary if a position is accepted after a school year has started. The intention seems to be to arrange the contract so that under any condition the agency will receive a commission equal to 5 per cent of one year's salary.

FORM 2

TEMPLE UNIVERSITY
EDUCATIONAL PLACEMENT BUREAU
REGISTRATION BLANK

1. Name in full _____ Date _____
2. Permanent address _____ Telephone _____
3. Temporary address _____ Telephone _____

PERSONAL DATA

4. Place of Birth _____ Date of Birth _____ Race _____ Are you a Citizen? _____
5. Religion _____ Are you active in church affairs? _____
6. Married? _____ Children? _____
7. Height _____ Weight _____ Any Physical Disability _____ General condition of health _____
8. What foreign languages do you read? _____ Speak readily? _____
9. Have you travelled or studied abroad? _____ If so, explain _____
10. Can you do secretarial work? _____ Bookkeeping? _____ Shorthand? (System) _____ Typing? _____
11. What forms of athletics can you supervise? State your preparation and experience along these lines _____
12. What activities such as band, orchestra, glee club, dramatics, debate, etc., can you direct? State your preparation and experience in each activity _____
13. What musical instruments can you play? _____ Do you sing? _____
14. College academic distinctions—prizes, scholarships, honors _____
15. Activities—membership in organizations, offices (College, church, community) _____
16. List all schools above elementary which you have attended (including Temple University)

Name of School	Location	Inclusive Dates	Degree	Major Field

17. Where did you do your practice teaching? _____ Supervisor _____
Subjects and levels taught _____
18. What are you certified to teach or coach? _____ Your final grade _____
19. List teaching certificates, with dates, you hold or will be eligible for _____
20. List in order your first three choices of types of positions desired. Be exact:
First choice _____
Second choice _____
Third choice _____
21. Are you restricted as to location? _____ Location preferred _____
22. What salary do you expect? _____ Least you will accept? _____
23. What books or articles have you published? (Give date, title, publisher) _____

FIGURE 19. Registration Form Used by the Educational Placement Bureau, Temple University.

5. After a position has once been accepted, the commission is due the agency, even though the registrant changes his plans and secures another position or leaves the profession.

6. Where room and board are given as a part of the salary, they are usually rated at \$400 per school year.

24. What are your avocations? _____
25. If this Bureau is requested by a teacher's agency to recommend a candidate for a position, do you object to having your name proposed, with the understanding that if the position is secured in this way, a fee is due the agency? _____
26. If it should seem advisable, may we telegraph at your expense? _____
Do you pledge yourself to notify us IMMEDIATELY upon being elected to a position, whether obtained through this Bureau or otherwise? _____
27. REFERENCES: Give names and addresses of college instructors or school administrators who are best qualified to speak of your ability. Give only professional references, to whom we are privileged to write for recommendations in your behalf.

Name	Official Position	Address
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____

REGISTRANT NOT TO WRITE BELOW THIS LINE

Credentials sent:			
Date	Place	Date	Place
_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____

POSITIONS HELD SUBSEQUENT TO REGISTRATION

Dates	Location	Subjects Taught	Salary	Superintendent
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

* Statements as to your religion are asked only to expedite matters where such information is desired by the prospective employer. Such information is helpful but not required.

NOTE: This registration is for one year only. At the end of the year a blank for renewal of registration will be sent you. If this is not returned to us, your name will be removed from the active list.

PLACEMENT BUREAU—TEMPLE UNIVERSITY

Name (in full) _____ Date _____
 Permanent address _____ Telephone _____
 Temporary address _____ Telephone _____
 (in pencil)

Date of Birth _____ Weight _____ Height _____ Health _____ Race _____
 Married? _____ If so, number of children _____ Church membership _____

ACADEMIC AND PROFESSIONAL TRAINING

Institutions Attended (Including Senior High School)	Location	Date of Entrance	Date of Leaving	Degree or Diploma
High School _____				
College _____				
Summer Sessions _____				

Teacher's Certificate _____ Year issued _____

List the subjects or grades you are certificated to teach in order of preference: _____

What is your major subject? _____ Minors? _____

Purchasing No. F-129-10-47-GM

TEACHING AND ADMINISTRATIVE EXPERIENCE
(Do not include student teaching or camp positions)

Name of Institution	Location	Position and Subjects Taught	Dates

Reference (as to training) _____

List allied experiences that should help you as a teacher or administrator: _____

Do you sing? _____ Play piano? _____ Other instruments? (List) _____

Can you do bookkeeping? _____ Shorthand? _____ Typewriting? _____

Foreign languages you read easily _____ Speak fluently _____

Have you studied or traveled abroad? _____ If so, to what extent? _____

Books or articles you have published: _____

FIGURE 20. Reference Form Used by the Educational Placement Bureau,
 Temple University.

What academic honors or other recognition have you earned? (Specify whether high school or college) _____

In what school activities have you participated? (Specify whether high school or college) _____

Underscore the ACTIVITIES you are qualified by training and experience to sponsor or coach: (If you are qualified in activities not listed, write them in the proper category.)

ATHLETICS: Football, basketball, baseball, soccer, track, wrestling, boxing, gymnastics, hockey, swimming, dancing, group games, tennis, golf, first aid, lacrosse.

MUSIC: Orchestra, band, glee club, assembly music, operetta, community singing. Private lessons in: Voice, piano, violin, band instruments.

ART: Sketch club, cartoon club, poster club, art exhibitions, hand crafts (leatherwork, metalry, basketry, weaving, jewelry, woodwork).

ENGLISH: Dramatics, debate, public speaking, choric speech, pageants, speech clubs, publications, literary club.

COMMERCIAL: Clubs in junior business, law, stenography, typewriting, advertising, retail selling. Junior Chamber of Commerce.

HOME ECONOMICS: Banquets, teas. Clubs in foods, clothing, canning, decorating, nursing, catering.

LANGUAGE: Clubs in Latin, French, Spanish, German.

SCIENCE: Clubs in chemistry, physics, radio, camera, botany, biology, motion pictures, electricity, astronomy.

SOCIAL SCIENCE: Clubs in history, current events, discussion.

GENERAL: Entertainments, dances, Junior Red Cross, school exhibits, visual education program, M.Y., Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, Girl Reserve, shirt club, safety patrol, school assemblies, home room, employment bureau, guidance program, library club, hand-book, Student Government.

Number of hours of graduate study _____

Graduate major _____ Graduate minors _____

Name of graduate advisor _____

(Undergraduate record on reverse side)

Not to be filled in by Registrant

RECORD OF UNDERGRADUATE STUDY

The candidate has studied the subjects marked + in the following list; is certified to teach the subjects marked ++; and has taught the subjects underscored.

EDUCATION		PSYCHOLOGY		GENERAL SUBJECTS		SOCIAL STUDIES		SCIENCE	
Introduction		General		English		History		General Science	
History		Educational		Composition		European		Biology	
Principles		Child		Literature		American		Zoology	
Educational Hygiene		Adolescent		Public Speaking				Bacteriology	
Administration		Social		Journalism		SOCIAL SCIENCE		Anatomy	
Tests & Measurements		Clinical		Dramatics		Geography		Physiology	
Principles & Techniques of Teaching		Experimental		Greek		Sociology		Chemistry	
Aims & Organization of Sec. Ed.		Juvenile Delinquency		Latin		Economics		General	
Curriculum Construction		Abnormal		French		Political Science		Qualitative	
Visual Education		Applied		German		Social Group Work		Quantitative	
Guidance		Mental Hygiene		Spanish				Organic	
Practice Teaching				Italian		MATHEMATICS		Inorganic	
Methods in						General Mathematics		Physics	
		PHILOSOPHY				Algebra		Geology	
		Ethics				Geometry		Agriculture	
		Logic				Trigonometry		Astronomy	
						Calculus			
						Statistics			
COMMERCIAL ED.		HOME ECONOMICS		SPECIAL SUBJECTS		FINE ART			
Accounting		Foods		PHYSICAL ED.		MUSIC EDUCATION			
Bookkeeping		Clothing		Hygiene		Grade School		Painting	
Business English and Correspondence		Nutrition		Gymnastics		High School		Drawing	
Commercial Arithmetic		Dietetics		Swimming		Supervision		Design	
Business Law		Family Budgets		Athletic Coaching		Vocal		Sculpture	
Economic Geography		Home Management		Recreation		Instrumental		History of Art	
Junior Bus. Training		Lunchroom Management		Plays and Games				Art Appreciation	
Office Practice		Consumer Problems		Dancing		SHOP ACTIVITIES		Creative Art	
Pennmanship		Related Art		First Aid		Welding		INDUSTRIAL ARTS	
Stenography				Correctives		Forging		Baketry	
Typewriting				Pageantry		Foundry		Leather Work	
Business Economics				Camp Counseling		Sheet Metal		Metalry	
Insurance				Physical Therapy		Wood Shop		Jewelry	
Salesmanship		EARLY CHILDHOOD ED.				Auto Mechanics		Pottery	
Marketing		Nursery School		SPECIAL EDUCATION		Machine Shop Practice		Weaving	
Consumer Education		Kindergarten		RELIGIOUS ED.		Electrical Constr.		Printing	
Retail Selling		Primary Grades						Woodwork	
Banking and Finance		ELEMENTARY ED.		NURSING ED.				Mechanical Drawing	
Organization and Management				MILITARY DRILL				Patternmaking	
								COMMERCIAL ART	

FIGURE 20—continued.

7. Applying for one position and accepting another under the same control does not lessen the obligation to the agency.

8. All information regarding a vacancy received from the agency is to be held in strict confidence by the registrant.

9. The registrant is to reply promptly to each notice of a vacancy sent by the agency, and is to inform the agency immediately when he accepts a position.

10. If the registrant secures an increase in salary in his present position as a result of the efforts of the agency, a commission of 5 per cent of the increase is payable to the agency.

11. If the registrant receives from the agency notice of a vacancy concerning which he has previously had information from other sources, he agrees to notify the agency immediately that he does not desire its services.

The registration blank to be filled out by the applicant is usually quite similar in form to the application blanks used by public school systems. The principal items of information requested may be classified as personal data, amount and kind of preparation, type of position sought, teaching experience, type of certificate held, ability to handle extracurricular activities, and references. In most cases the registrant is asked to furnish a picture. After the registration blank has been received, the agency requests from the individuals listed as references their opinions regarding the abilities and qualifications of the registrant, the agency usually providing the forms upon which these references are written. When a vacancy is located, the agency supplies the employer with the available information about each registrant.

Unsolicited Applications

If the superintendent cannot complete a satisfactory list of applicants from among his professional acquaintances, or from those recommended by his colleagues, by professional placement bureaus, or by commercial teachers' agencies, he must perforce resort to unsolicited applications. However, this is usually the last resort of the trained superintendent of schools except in periods of emergency when there is a shortage of teachers such as

was experienced during the war years. Because he can usually fill the vacancies that occur without depending on these applications and for a variety of other reasons, the superintendent does not usually look with favor upon unsolicited applications.⁵

An oversupply of candidates for teaching positions makes the clerical duties associated with handling them a burden out of all proportion to their importance. A superintendent who observes the ethics of his position must at least acknowledge all applications. Where applications are received by the hundreds, as they frequently are in some school systems, they require a great deal of the time of the superintendent, or some official to whom he may delegate the work, and at the same time entail considerable clerical expense. Many of the applications come from persons who do not even know whether or not there are to be vacancies. Some are from teachers who are not qualified under the state laws or the regulations of the board. Others are from teachers who merely want a "change of scenery," who know nothing of the salaries paid, and who would not accept a position if it were offered to them.

In a few places the burden of handling such applications becomes so heavy that it is necessary to charge a small fee for filing the application blank. This practice discourages those who are merely "shopping around" and those who know that they have little or no chance of being appointed. It likewise provides a fund which, in whole or in part, pays for the clerical service involved in handling the applications. One school system with which the writer is familiar, upon receiving a letter of application, mails to the applicant an application blank, a copy of the board rules and regulations respecting the training of teachers, a copy of the salary schedule, and a form letter. This letter suggests that the applicant study the board's regulations respecting training and examine the salary schedule. If the applicant can meet the training requirements and is willing to accept the salary that his preparation and experience would call for under the

⁵ Applications, for the most part, are unsolicited in large city school systems where the selection of teachers is handled through a special office and there is very little personal knowledge of the candidates.

schedule, he is invited to become a candidate for a position by filling out the application blank and returning it, together with the fee of 50 cents. However, he is in no way led to believe that an appointment will be probable. Although the system employs more than 250 teachers, the number of replacements rarely exceeds ten or twelve, and these positions are almost always filled by teachers whose work is familiar to the superintendent or by applicants who are recommended by the professional friends of the superintendent. In the face of all these conditions, dozens of inquiries about positions are received annually.

Practical Suggestions

It is in terms of the practices outlined in the preceding paragraphs that the prospective teacher must direct his efforts toward securing a position. Clearly, that candidate has the greatest advantage who has or can establish some professional connection with the executive head of a school system. The teacher most likely to be employed is the one with whom the superintendent is himself acquainted, and the next most favored individual is usually one recommended by another member of the profession whose judgment the superintendent respects. Consequently, it behooves the teacher to establish as early as possible his professional connections and to build up the kind of reputation that will make these connections operate in his favor.

Here it may be well to distinguish between "professional influence" and the type of influence commonly known as *pull*. The first refers to influence brought to bear by people who are interested in the candidate, but who are primarily concerned with the improvement of the educational system and the teaching profession. These people are themselves engaged in educational work and are little affected by factors other than those related to successful teaching. On the other hand, *pull* might be defined as a form of pressure exerted for political or personal reasons without regard for the welfare of the schools or the teaching profession. It is the type of influence that brings about the employment of an inferior candidate when a superior teacher

is readily available. Nepotism flourishes where positions are obtained through "pull," but rarely makes its appearance where professional influence is a determining factor. A teacher can ethically make use of professional influence; he must, in fact, seek and make effective use of such influence if he is to achieve any large success in the work. On the contrary, he can neither seek nor intentionally make use of "pull" without violating the ethics of the profession.

The teacher who has no professional connections and who is not in a position to make them must depend upon the professional placement bureau and the teachers' agency, or must make unsolicited applications in the hope of establishing a contact that will result in employment. Such a teacher should take advantage of any professional placement service that may be available and should enroll with a least one reliable commercial agency. If the teacher finds it necessary to make a direct application to a superintendent without the benefit of some form of introduction, certain procedures are to be recommended, although there is little likelihood that the unsolicited application will produce results in any large per cent of cases.

The indiscriminate mailing of a large number of form applications is a practice that should be entirely eliminated. Such efforts are largely futile and serve only to increase the disfavor with which unsolicited applications are viewed by superintendents. If the teacher feels called upon to make an original contact without the aid of an intermediary of some kind, he should, if it is possible, arrange to visit the office of the superintendent and there ask permission to file an application. If such a plan is not feasible and the teacher finds it necessary to write letters of application, these should be directed only to a few places where there is some probability of a vacancy occurring and where there is at least a remote chance that the training and experience of a candidate will demand some consideration.

INFORMATION ABOUT CANDIDATES

With a list of applications at hand, the superintendent is faced with the problem of assembling enough information about the

candidates to enable him to make an intelligent selection. From what sources are the necessary facts obtained?

The original contact will represent his first source of information. If the applicant is an acquaintance of the superintendent, his training, experience, teaching ability, and personality are to some extent known. If he has been recommended by another member of the profession, the superintendent will have been given some information on these and related factors. If the contact has been made through a professional placement bureau or a teachers' agency, the superintendent will have had access to all the information appearing on the forms used by the bureau or agency. Should the candidate have procured a place on the list through an unsolicited application, the superintendent must start with the information in the original letter of application or, if the application was a personal one, with the information gained at the first interview.

Whatever information is obtained at the time of the original contact, in nearly all cases it will be supplemented from other sources. The principal ones now employed in addition to the letter of application are the application blank, letters of reference, and the personal interview. Each of these will be discussed briefly in the following paragraphs.

Letters of Application

The traditional letter of application, in which the candidate submits all information that might have a bearing on his ability, now plays only a minor part in the selection of teachers. Most well-administered school systems make use of an application blank upon which is entered virtually all information that formerly appeared in these letters. Consequently, when a letter is used in making an unsolicited application or in following up a contact made by an appointment bureau or agency, the applicant will usually need only to state a few of the most important facts about his training and experience, and to request a blank upon which the formal application may be made. However, generalizations about the contents of letters of application can-

not safely be made since the nature of each will be determined by the circumstances under which it is written.

Regardless of the content of the letter, it is highly important that it be correct in form, English usage, spelling, and punctuation. Neatness and accuracy in the preparation of letters of application cannot be emphasized too much, for carelessness in these respects is almost certain to reduce the applicant's chances for appointment. It would appear that any individual who is properly equipped to teach should be able to write a letter that would be beyond criticism in these respects. However, there is ample evidence that this is not always the case. Unless the applicant has absolute confidence in his ability to prepare a satisfactory letter, he should consult some member of his profession who can assist him with both the content and the form of the letter. Unless there is reason to believe that the employer might desire a specimen of the applicant's handwriting, it is better to have all letters and application blanks typewritten.

Application Blanks

In a study some time ago by the Research Division of the National Education Association,⁶ it was found that the great majority of city school systems used formal application blanks for the selection and appointment of teachers. This fact was supported in a later study by Coulbourn,⁷ who made an intensive investigation of employment practices in large city school systems. Commenting upon the reasons for the wide use of application blanks, the Research Division pointed out that, "although the alert superintendent will not wait for applications in making his list of candidates, he will usually find it convenient to obtain information about candidates on an application form. Ordinary letters of application are usually unsatisfactory, particularly in

⁶ *Administrative Practices Affecting Classroom Teachers*, p. 24. Research Bulletin, National Education Association. Washington: National Education Association, January, 1932.

⁷ John Coulbourn, *Selection of Teachers in Large City School Systems*, pp. 51-52. Contributions to Education, No. 740. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1938.

those school systems where large numbers of new teachers are appointed each year. Such letters often omit important items of information, and there is little uniformity in the arrangement of the items included. A formal application blank, on the other hand, is uniform, readily filed, and easily referred to at any time.⁸

Numerous studies have been made of teachers' application blanks. These investigations show wide variations in the form of the blanks, in their length, and in the information requested. In general, the questions asked are classified by Coulbourn under the following heads:

1. Personal data, including name, address, race and citizenship, date and place of birth, and marital status.
2. Specific training in the special field of work for which the applicant has applied.
3. Professional training as represented by specific and general courses in education.
4. General training as represented by all other college and university courses not included under "1" and "2."
5. Experience in teaching, supervision, and administration.
6. Trade or other experience.
7. References as represented by names, official positions, and addresses of persons who are most familiar with the applicant both as student and teacher or employee.⁹

In a study by Fisher of the information considered as indispensable by superintendents in the selection of candidates for teaching positions in Pennsylvania, it was found that they wanted to know the candidate's name, home address, age, race, physical condition, nationality, marital status, photograph, teaching experience, nonteaching experience, musical ability, extracurricular activities and accomplishments. They considered as desirable, but not indispensable, information pertaining to the candidate's religious preference, church membership, college attendance record, health record, foreign residence, foreign lan-

⁸ *Administrative Practices Affecting Classroom Teachers*, loc. cit.

⁹ John Coulbourn, *op. cit.*, p. 54.

guages spoken, and business ability in typewriting, bookkeeping, and shorthand.¹⁰

Occasionally, application blanks are issued by superintendents calling for a wide range of information including such items as use of intoxicants, immunization against diseases, use of tobacco, color of hair, color of eyes, and even complexion of skin. Any prospective applicant for a teaching position may well ask why some of these items appear on application blanks since they seem to be far removed from the question of teaching efficiency. Why, for example, if the only idea is the selection of a superior teacher, should the employer be concerned about the church preference of the applicant, the color of his eyes and hair, his complexion, and his parents' birthplace? Is it any business of the employer whether or not the applicant uses tobacco as long as it in no way affects his work as a teacher? Is it fair to ask the candidate to state the least salary that he will take and thus force him to run the risk of placing the figure too high, thereby preventing consideration of his application, or of placing it too low and thereby selling his services too cheaply and at the same time underbidding other worthy candidates for the position?

Admittedly, these and other questions of a similar nature add little to the effectiveness of an application blank. Some of these questionable items are included merely because superintendents have not given enough time and thought to the preparation of these forms. Others, which appear to possess little value generally, may have some peculiar significance in a particular community and may have been included for this reason. Others are included because it is the practice in the school system represented to give consideration to factors that should be ignored in the selection of teachers.

Whatever the reason for the inclusion of such items, it is not the business of the applicant to correct or to improve upon the application form furnished by the prospective employer. Regardless of his opinion of the blank in general or some of the specific questions asked, the wise candidate will endeavor to fill

¹⁰ Charles A. Fisher, "Credential Requirements of School Administrators," *School and College Placement*, 1:43-48, March, 1941.

it out completely, accurately, and neatly, and will return it promptly to the proper authority. The student or the teacher who has had little experience in seeking employment should study the application blank very carefully in order that there may be no misunderstanding about the information asked for.

Lower Merion Township Public Schools.
School Administration Building
Ardmore, Pennsylvania

Application for Teacher's Position

Date

All applicants for a teaching position must answer the following questions in full in their own handwriting and file the application with the superintendent of schools:

Full Name Date of Birth Married or Single?

Present Address Home Address

Telephone Number Telephone Number

Educational Advantages:
 (Account fully for time since entering Secondary School).

NAME	LOCATION	DATE OF ENTRANCE	DATE OF LEAVING	DIPLOMA (Yes or No)	DEGREE
High School					
College					

Teaching Experience:
 (Give places, dates, grades, salaries)

Indicate here the subjects you are qualified to teach. Underline your specialties:

(over)

FIGURE 21. Application Blank for a Teaching Position in the Lower Merion Township Public Schools, Ardmore, Pa. (Front)

Whenever there is any doubt in the mind of the applicant about the meaning of a question on an application blank, or about the answer that should be inserted, he should seek the assistance of a member of the profession whose training and experience will insure sound advice.

What position or grade do you prefer?		What is your second choice?
When can you begin work?		
What experience or training have you had qualifying you to supervise such school activities as clubs, school paper, athletics, plays, or extra-curricular activities?		
Salary now received?	Salary expected?	
What is the maximum salary paid for your grade in your present district?		
What license to teach in Pennsylvania Public Schools do you hold?		
Weight?	Height?	Health
Any physical deformity?		
What educational magazines do you take?		
What educational books have you read since graduation?		
References, Academic (give 3):		
References, Professional (give 3):		
Church affiliation:		
(Attach your photograph)		

FIGURE 22. Application Blank for a Teaching Position in the Lower Merion Township Public Schools, Ardmore, Pa. (Reverse)

Figures 21 and 22 show the two faces of an application blank used in the Lower Merion Township Public Schools, Ardmore, Pennsylvania. This form is the one used by applicants for both high school positions and elementary positions. The size of the blank facilitates filing, and makes easy the care of additional data such as letters of reference and the transcript of college credits which are frequently required.

References

Almost without exception the candidate for a teaching position is requested to furnish references in one form or another. The open letter of reference carried by the applicant is no longer looked upon with favor by trained school administrators and will ordinarily help the candidate's cause little or not at all. What the alert superintendent is seeking is an honest statement about the probable effectiveness of the applicant's work. Consequently, he is not interested in "to-whom-it-may-concern" letters. He desires instead a confidential statement addressed specifically to him, and with the content bearing on the particular application under consideration.

Sometimes the applicant himself must see that the necessary references are written and sent to the proper authorities. However, the most common practice, and the one rapidly supplanting all other procedures, is for the employing officer to request the references from the individuals whose names have been submitted by the applicant in the letter of application or on the application blank. This practice permits the superintendent to select, within limits, the writers of the references, and, more important, it makes it possible for him to seek the particular information that he needs. In Table 1, the prospective candidate for a teaching position can gain a detailed understanding of the kinds of information that superintendents request on forms sent to individuals whose names are given by the candidate as references on the application blank.

Where the superintendent makes use of only those references which he has himself solicited, the responsibility of the candidate is largely that of seeing that the names which he furnishes

for reference are as well selected as possible. In making this selection it should be borne in mind that the superintendent is interested only in information that has a direct bearing on the probable efficiency of the teacher in the position for which he is applying. A favorable but conservative statement from a mem-

TABLE 1

Items Used Most Frequently on Reference Forms in Twenty-six Cities ¹¹

<i>Items Used</i>	<i>Number of Cities</i>
Scholarship (including preparation).....	26
Teaching experience.....	26
Success in discipline or managing.....	19
Character (including moral character).....	18
Health.....	17
Disposition and ability to cooperate.....	17
Notable deficiencies, faults, defects, objectionable features, idiosyncrasies, or eccentricities which make applicant undesirable as a teacher.....	14
Skill in instruction (including teaching ability).....	13
Loyalty.....	13
General or personal appearance and manner.....	13
Willingness to employ the applicant in school for which you are responsible	12
Success in teaching (including teaching results).....	12
Personality.....	11
Opportunities to form your opinion or judgment of the applicant.....	11
Professional disposition, attitude, vision, or ideals.....	11
General estimate or rating.....	11
Tact.....	10
Physical defects (if any).....	10
Sympathetic relations with pupils and parents.....	9
Evidence of professional growth.....	9
Teaching experience under your observation or supervision.....	9
Culture and refinement.....	8
Qualifications best suited for teaching what grade or subject.....	8
Initiative and energy.....	7
Standing in community.....	7

ber of the profession upon whose word the superintendent can safely rely will probably influence his decision a great deal more than will a flowery and extravagant letter from someone who is moved to emphasize factors other than those associated with teaching efficiency.

The best reference that can be furnished by a candidate who

¹¹ John Coulbourn, *op. cit.*, p. 59.

has had teaching experience is a superintendent or principal for whom he has taught. If possible, the administrator who is given as a reference should be one previously associated with the applicant and one who can, as a consequence, give reliable information respecting the quality of work done. For the inexperienced teacher, the best reference is probably that written by the critic teacher who has supervised the candidate's student teaching or cadet work.¹²

Next to the administrator who has supervised the work of the applicant and the critic teacher who has had charge of the student teaching or cadet work, the best reference is probably an instructor who has had the candidate in one or more college classes. Superintendents are prone to place greater reliance on references furnished by professors in the department of education than on references from instructors of academic courses. There is no evidence to show that this practice is justified, but the administrator can hardly be blamed for assuming that professors primarily interested in teacher training are better qualified to predict teacher success than are professors whose principal interest is in a single subject-matter department. In any case, the chief interest of the applicant is in the actual practices of employing officials rather than in a justification of these practices.

The last reference to which the applicant should resort is one entirely outside of the profession. There may be many people not engaged in educational work who can offer highly accurate appraisals of the qualifications of a candidate, but the superintendent can never be certain that a recommendation of this kind has not been prompted by personal or political motives. He prefers to rest his judgment on the recommendations of those who are engaged in school work and who are inclined to consider the welfare of the schools as well as their personal interest in the applicant. Even if he is interested principally in a character

¹² A superintendent of schools or a principal who has known the applicant well as a high school and college student is, in some instances, looked upon as an acceptable reference, although there are doubtless some superintendents who would regard such a reference lightly on the ground that merely knowing the applicant in a nonprofessional way does not qualify an administrator to speak with any authority on his probable success as a teacher.

reference, he has good reason to believe that he can find no better source for such a reference than among the members of his own profession. Letters from the so-called "influential citizen" will do the candidate but little good in any case, and may even do harm in those situations where strictly professional methods are employed in the selection of teachers.

Ordinarily, the applicant for a teaching position will be asked to list from three to six names for reference purposes. These names should be selected carefully on the basis of the principles outlined in the preceding paragraphs. They should be listed in the order of their importance to the candidate, and care should be taken to insure that all names are properly spelled, that titles are correct, that addresses are complete and accurate, and that all names and addresses are legibly written. The applicant should never submit the name of a person as a reference without first being certain that he is within his rights in doing so. Unless the friendship or acquaintance is extremely cordial, permission should be obtained to use a name before it is listed as a reference, and it is better to ask permission in every case.

As was indicated previously, the letter of reference may be informal in nature or it may be submitted on a blank prepared for that purpose. Although there are certain advantages in the informal letter, superintendents in increasing numbers are making use of the reference blanks that they have themselves developed. The principal arguments for these forms are that they facilitate comparisons and encourage the writer to emphasize those points which the employing officials consider important.

A reference blank developed for use in the Cincinnati schools takes the form of a rating scale upon which is indicated the impressions of the individual whose name was given as a reference. The characteristics upon which the candidate is to be rated are grouped under four headings with a total value of 1,000 points. These four divisions, with weightings given each, are as follows: (1) personal characteristics, 180 points; (2) professional preparation, 210 points; (3) professional characteristics, 250 points; and (4) teaching skills and results, 360 points. For each subdivision under these heads there is provided a scale, similar to the one

following, upon which the rater is to indicate his opinion by placing a check on the line at the appropriate point:

APPEARANCE-ADDRESS

20	15	10	5	0
Impression usually favorable; dresses appropriately; wholesome; well poised	Impression satisfactory; would not attract especial attention; no unfavorable reaction			Weak; nervous; embarrassed; inappropriate dress; careless or faddish

A similar form was prepared for use in the public schools of Minneapolis. There personal qualities are rated on a five-point scale where the first, third, and fifth points are explained briefly so as to assist the rater in interpreting the scale. The rater is asked to place a check mark on the scale at the point which best describes the candidate in his judgment. At the same time the rater may also underline the work or phrase which best describes the person.

	1	2	3	4	5
	Superior	Strong	Good	Fair	Poor
CHARACTER	Irreproachable; trustworthy	Conforms; no special weakness		Indiscreet; untrustworthy	

Besides the use of graduated rating scales, which define various personal and professional qualities, raters are occasionally asked by some school systems to fill out rather detailed forms giving information primarily about the applicant's teaching experience. This applies more, of course, to applicants with teaching experience than it does to beginning teachers whose background of practical experience is usually limited to some form of student or directed teaching. It is significant to note, however, that school systems are vitally concerned about getting competent teachers and that a sincere and careful effort is made to select only those applicants who meet local standards.

Personal Interviews

The information obtained by the superintendent from his original contacts with the various applicants, from the application blanks, and from the references will enable him either to

make a selection or to reduce materially the number of eligible candidates. When additional information is deemed necessary, he will probably summon those candidates remaining on the list for personal interviews or for such other tests as he may see fit to apply. Nearly all superintendents favor the use of the personal interview, and only in cases where it is highly expensive or impossible is it omitted.¹³

In most instances the interview will be informal, its trend being determined by the opening questions or remarks and by the personal views of the superintendent. Occasionally a form of

INTERVIEW ANALYSIS BLANK

1. Name 2. Date.....
3. Address
4. Position desired
5. Give names of last two schools in which employed; or if inexperienced, the names of the school courses most helpful in preparing you for this job.
Position: 1.
2.
6. What was the outstanding value which you secured from each of the last two positions; or from each of the two courses mentioned above if inexperienced?
Position: 1.
2.
7. If experienced, why did you make your last change? (Please check.)
1. ☐ Better position
2. ☐ Failed of re-election
3. ☐ Health
4. ☐ To be nearer home
5. ☐ Dissatisfaction with community
6. ☐ Dislike of superiors
7. ☐ Other reasons (please specify)
8. What was your greatest strength in your last two positions? If inexperienced, what do you think is your greatest strength?
Position: 1.
2.
9. If experienced, what were the criticisms made most frequently of your work? If inexperienced, what do you consider your greatest weakness?
Position: 1.
2.
10. Why would you like to teach in this school system? (Please check.)
1. ☐ To be near home
2. ☐ To be with friends

¹³ A personal interview is still considered essential by most administrators in spite of the fact that several psychological investigations have indicated that the typical, informal interview is an extremely unreliable method for predicting the success of prospective employees.

3. () Prestige of school system
4. () Others—please list
11. Name the professional magazines which you read regularly.
 1.
 2.
 3.
12. What definite steps are you taking to prepare yourself to be a better teacher?
 1.
 2.
 3.
13. What do you most enjoy doing during your leisure?
 1.
 2.
 3.

some kind may be employed as a guide for the superintendent in conducting the interview. Some students of personnel problems recommend that a form of this kind be filled out by the applicant prior to the interview and that the responses submitted be used by the superintendent in directing the interview. The example of a form of this kind shown on page 171 indicates the nature of the questions that may be given consideration in the personal interview.¹⁴

Regardless of the questions asked or the general trend of the interview, the problem of the applicant is to present himself to the superintendent or other employing officer in the most favorable light possible. Frequently an opportunity for employment is lost during the personal interview as a result of an impression left by the candidate that might very well have been avoided. No general rules for the conduct of the applicant can be laid down, but certain suggestions may prove beneficial, particularly to the prospective teacher who is facing the first interview.

1. The applicant should reach the appointed meeting place on time. It is better to be ten minutes early than two minutes late.

2. Personal appearance may determine to a considerable extent the question of employment. The applicant should be neatly dressed and properly groomed. All articles of clothing should approximate the styles of the day, but they should not be

¹⁴ S. N. Stevens and S. A. Hamrin, "Interviewing the Prospective Teacher," *American School Board Journal*, 82:59-60, June, 1931.

extravagant or faddish. Women should avoid excessive use of cosmetics.

3. Although a reasonable amount of modesty is appropriate to the situation, the applicant's appearance and manner should express confidence and optimism.

4. The employing officer should be permitted to direct the interview and to gain the information that he desires. Although reticence is to be avoided, the applicant should not be overzealous in "selling" himself. It is not unusual for a candidate to talk himself out of a position.

5. The applicant does not show good judgment who advertises himself as a tobacco user. Most superintendents are inclined to be tolerant in their views, but a few still have very definite prejudices, particularly where the woman teacher is concerned.

6. The applicant should go to the interview alone. The employing official is interested in the qualifications of the applicant as revealed by the interview and not in the opinion of friends and relatives. Furthermore, he is likely to resent any effort on the part of the candidate to influence his decision by bringing uninvited people to his office.

7. The applicant should be careful not to prolong the interview. If he is alert, he will know when the superintendent is ready to terminate the meeting, and will help to bring it to a close without embarrassment to either party.

In preparing himself for an interview, the candidate can advisedly make an inventory of the possible types of questions which he may be asked. Certainly he should be prepared to tell why he believes he has the qualifications which make for efficient teaching, what his philosophy of education is like, how this philosophy might express itself in curriculum and methods of teaching, what instructional materials and equipment he considers essential to the teaching field of his interest, and how learning may be evaluated. Superintendents are interested in knowing likewise how well informed the candidate may be regarding current developments in education. Any candidate who not only has

sound answers to such questions but who also can express his ideas clearly is bound to leave a favorable impression.

At the same time, a prudent applicant for a teaching position will want information about a school system which is useful in reaching a decision whether to accept a position, once it is offered. He may find that the philosophy of education underlying the organization of the system and the policies by which it operates are inconsistent with the views he holds. It is conceivable that the teaching assignments open or the schedule of teaching and extracurricular responsibilities are unsuited to his interests and background of preparation. Perhaps the conventions that he must observe in the community allow but little room for the right to an existence as a private citizen. After all, the applicant's stake in a contractual arrangement is just as great as that of the school system that employs him. There must be a meeting of the minds that is mutually beneficial to the parties concerned; too many young teachers take positions in teaching for the sake of having a job without realizing the distress this may eventually create for themselves and the school system.

National Teacher Examinations

Interviews are usually held in abeyance in school systems where the National Teacher Examinations are given as a means for identifying and selecting candidates for teaching positions. Only those applicants become eligible for interviews who receive scores above the critical score set for the examinations. The critical score may vary from one school system to another depending upon local employment standards and the existing relationship of supply to demand in particular fields of education and subject-matter specialization.

The National Teacher Examinations were developed by a committee appointed by the American Council on Education after the Council became convinced that some sort of objective means should be used in the selection of competent teachers. This decision was reached by the Council following a period of considerable study and consultation with education leaders in all parts of the country. The National Committee on Teacher Examinations undertook its work in 1939.

The National Teacher Examinations developed by the committee consist of a series of objective, multiple-alternative, and "best" answer types of questions which the authors of the examinations claim test the candidate's knowledge and ability to use that knowledge. The authors, however, caution that these examinations should not be used as the sole criterion for the selection of teachers, since they provide no estimate of qualities of character and personality which are so vital to success in teaching.

The examinations cover a wide range of information that few, if any, candidates are able to supply completely and correctly. The first part of the examination is a nonverbal intelligence test followed by an English comprehension test, and an English expression test. The next section deals with "General Culture" and covers current social problems, history and social studies, literature, science, fine arts, and mathematics. This is followed by an inventory of the candidate's points of view, goals, and methods of professional education. The last section is given over to contemporary affairs. In addition, optional examinations may be taken in the fields of the candidate's subject-matter specialization, which for elementary teachers is limited to "Education in the Elementary School." Not including the optional part of the examinations, the tests take a total of 480 minutes, or eight hours of time.

Some criticism of the National Teachers Examinations has been made on grounds that they emphasize too much a narrow phase of teacher education, which may obstruct the progress needed in a changing pattern of professional education.¹⁵ Also, it has been charged that the results obtained by a candidate are weighted too heavily: a satisfactory score on the examinations may count as much as 50 per cent of the final ratings considered in selecting a teacher. There are instances where the examination scores have been given greater weight to the exclusion of other factors more truly representative of the competencies desired in teachers today.

¹⁵ Walter A. Anderson, "The National Teacher Examinations—A Criticism," *Childhood Education*, 18:179-181, December, 1941.

Other Considerations

The sources of information described previously are the ones upon which large dependence is placed by a majority of superintendents. Others that are used less frequently are the observation of the classroom work of the applicant and the physical examination. In many instances an attempt is made to observe the applicant at work in a practical situation. He is required to conduct a class or a series of classes for the benefit of the school officials with whom the application was filed. This provides an excellent opportunity to observe and judge the applicant's ability to teach; it would be followed more frequently in selecting teachers, no doubt, if it were not for the time and expense involved. The significance of this practice is borne out in the following report "that over a period of nine years, of those teachers . . . who were selected by correspondence alone, 75 per cent were not recommended for reappointment. Of those chosen by means of an interview, 24 per cent were not re-elected; while of the teachers selected after observation of their teaching, none failed to be reappointed on account of unsatisfactory teaching or discipline."¹⁶

In recent years there has been a growing recognition of the need for administering medical or physical examinations to successful candidates for teaching positions. This is important as a protection for the health of children and for the maintenance of teaching efficiency. No individual who is physically unfit can satisfactorily undertake the heavy and important responsibilities of a teacher in a modern school. Frequent illness and absence from the classroom cut deeply into the educational progress of pupils and add unfairly to the taxpayers' bill for the support of schools. The need for examinations is even more important in states having tenure for teachers because of the legal protection afforded the unfit once they have satisfied the requirements of the law. That all school systems do not require com-

¹⁶ *Administrative Practices Affecting Classroom Teachers*, p. 26. Research Bulletin, National Education Association. Washington: National Education Association, January, 1932.

plete physical examinations for successful applicants is surprising. However, the trend is in that direction so that oncoming teachers will have to meet this requirement.

FACTORS DETERMINING APPOINTMENT

What factors are likely to determine the final selection of teachers after all available information has been given consideration? No answer to this question can be given that will fit every case, for the factors upon which the selection is based and the relative emphasis placed upon each will be determined by the experience and training of the employing official and his attitude toward the profession. However, a generalization may be offered. In almost all cases the appointment will be determined on the basis of factors classifiable under the following nine heads: (1) teaching experience, (2) preparation, (3) professional reputation, (4) personal characteristics, (5) residence, (6) marital status, (7) sex, (8) age, and (9) elements of prejudice.

A superintendent having high ideals will make his decision mainly on the basis of the first four factors, although in some instances he may find it necessary to allow residence, marital status, sex, or age to influence his decision. Where the professional head of the school is deprived of the authority for the appointment of teachers, any single factor or any combination of factors may control the selection; in the worst cases, the decision is made almost wholly upon the basis of prejudice and irrelevant considerations.

Teaching Experience

School superintendents and, for that matter, all other officials that participate in the selection of teachers, are inclined to favor the teacher of experience over the one without experience. Furthermore, they assume in most cases that efficiency of teaching is likely to increase in proportion to the amount of experience. A study of practices in 1,470 cities of the United States shows that in about 42 per cent of the systems represented one or more years of experience are required for appointment to

elementary positions. For junior high school positions the proportion of cities requiring experience is about 53 per cent, and for senior high school positions, approximately the same.¹⁷

For the inexperienced teacher, interested in obtaining a position, the most significant aspect of the whole situation is that there is a definite tendency on the part of many superintendents to look upon practice teaching under competent supervision as an equivalent of the experience requirement. Some, in fact, take the position that such practice is even superior to one or two years of experience in poorly equipped and inadequately supervised schools or in a type of work radically different from the position sought. With the further improvement of practice-teaching facilities and the development of plans for intern teaching, this attitude is likely to become more prevalent. The teacher of actual experience will, no doubt, continue to have an advantage in the competition for positions, but the advantage over the properly trained teacher should be decreased with the passing of time. Inexperienced teachers without practice teaching, on the other hand, will probably find themselves at a greater disadvantage with each succeeding year.

Preparation

As the problem of teacher preparation has been given consideration in a previous chapter, it need not be elaborated on here. Suffice it to say, that in the employment of teachers the professional administrator will place large emphasis on the amount, kind, and quality of the teacher's preparation. He will want to be sure that the amount of college or university training has been up to standard; that there has been a proper distribution of emphasis between academic and professional preparation; that the program has been sufficiently varied and yet sufficiently unified to make probable a high standard of culture, refinement, and social intelligence; that both the academic and professional work have been selected in terms of a specific teaching task; that the curriculum has included practice teaching; and that the entire training program represents specialization in the field in which the position is sought.

¹⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 13.

Professional Reputation

With experience the teacher soon acquires a reputation which is likely to affect materially his opportunities for employment. This professional reputation is reflected in the references obtained by the employing officer and such information as he may obtain by direct contacts with those acquainted with the work of the teacher. In many cases this factor will be given as much consideration as either preparation or experience. Consequently, it behooves the individual who is desirous of making progress in educational work to build for himself as rapidly as possible a reputation for conscientious and effective work. It may seem to the teacher without experience that this factor is of no importance to him, but this is hardly the case. Throughout the period of his training the student is leaving impressions that may prove to be of much importance when he seeks employment. His attitudes toward study and toward the profession are under constant observation, and it is the reactions of his instructors to these attitudes that necessarily determine his early professional reputation.

Personal Characteristics

In spite of the fact that subjective judgments of personality traits have never been found to possess a high degree of reliability, administrators frequently place a large amount of emphasis on such characteristics. In fact, superintendents frequently insist that for elementary teaching personal traits are equally as important in determining success as is formal preparation. Although we have little or no evidence to indicate just what part such factors do play in teaching success, nearly all students of education agree that they are highly important.

The amount of emphasis placed on personality traits varies greatly, but in almost every case, other things being equal, that teacher will have the advantage in the competition for positions who has an attractive face and posture, who has a pleasant but positive personality, who dresses well and is carefully groomed, and who gives evidence of health and both physical and mental vigor.

Residence

Theoretically, the residence of a teacher should not, in other than exceptional cases, be an important factor in determining employment. Educational efficiency should be the major objective in the selection of teachers, and there are few instances where the effectiveness of a teacher's work is determined to any considerable degree by the place of residence prior to employment. Actually, the local resident has an advantage over the nonresident in a vast majority of American school systems, and there are many school communities in which the outsider has little or no opportunity for employment.

The arguments used in defense of the employment of local teachers may be summarized as follows:

1. There is no good reason for not employing a relatively large proportion of local teachers as long as those selected have qualifications equal to or better than those of outside applicants.
2. Local teachers can be obtained with less effort and their qualifications can be more carefully analyzed.
3. Local teachers can be obtained more cheaply than nonresidents.
4. Community loyalty or pride demands that local residents who are unemployed be the first to receive economic assistance through employment.
5. The local resident understands community conditions and community needs, whereas the nonresident must make an adjustment that is sometimes difficult.
6. Failure to employ local teachers will frequently result in friction and bitterness that will do the schools more harm than would their employment.¹⁸

In opposition to the policy of giving preference to the local resident, there may be listed the following arguments:

1. In the selection and appointment of teachers, only those factors should be considered that have a direct bearing on

¹⁸ In part from *Administrative Practices Affecting Classroom Teachers*, *op. cit.*, p. 22.

- teaching efficiency. The place of residence prior to employment rarely affects, one way or the other, the efficiency of the teacher's work.
2. School systems need the stimulus that comes from teachers with a variety of community backgrounds and experiences.
 3. Local teachers are generally more difficult to dismiss in case they prove unsatisfactory.
 4. The local teacher through personal and political influence may handicap the administration when its policies do not happen to cater to the teacher's desires and preferences.¹⁹

The point to be emphasized is that residence, local or otherwise, should not be a factor of importance in the selection and appointment of teachers unless it affects the quality of the school program. Reports from 1,488 cities, ranging in population from 2,500 to over 100,000 showed that in almost 60 per cent of the school systems represented preference is given to local residents in the appointment of teachers.²⁰ In large part this is due to the fact that there was an ample supply of teachers available and that it was possible to obtain a local resident as well qualified as any who could be employed from the outside. Under such conditions the welfare of the schools is probably not seriously affected. On the other hand, there are many school systems, particularly in rural areas, where preference is shown the local resident regardless of qualifications or ability.

Marital Status

A study of 1,473 representative city school systems showed that approximately 77 per cent of the group employed no married women as new teachers and that, in 62 per cent, single women teachers who married were required to resign either at once or at the end of the school year.²¹ Because of critical teacher shortages today, school systems have been compelled to change their regulations regarding married women with the result that they now have little difficulty in securing and holding

¹⁹ *Ibid.*

²⁰ *Ibid.*

²¹ *Ibid.*, p. 19.

teaching positions in the public schools. There does not appear to be any valid reason why marriage should be a factor of any large importance in the selection and retention of teachers unless it affects the welfare of the school. Formerly, however, where single teachers with qualifications and abilities equal to those of married women teachers could be obtained, there were probably good administrative reasons for excluding the latter. The principal arguments advanced against the married woman teacher were as follows:

1. Married women who teach cannot give the necessary attention and care to their homes and families.
2. The home interests of the married teacher, if properly cared for, detract from the effectiveness of her teaching.
3. Married women teachers are not likely to take additional training or make any other effort to improve themselves professionally.
4. The married woman teacher is usually a local resident and often through the pressure of public opinion and the influence of friends and relatives keeps the school authorities from dealing with her according to the best interests of the school system.
5. In the employment of teachers, persons who are dependent upon themselves for support should be given preference over those who have other means of support. Particularly should this be the case when there is a general oversupply of teachers.²²

Those who favored the employment of teachers without regard to marital status argued that there was no evidence that marriage affected in any important way the effectiveness of the woman teacher's work, and that there was, therefore, no good reason for discrimination against her. They further argued that it was the business of school officials to secure the most competent teachers available, rather than to fill positions with persons who happen to be in need of work.

Regardless of the merits of the arguments on either side of

²² *Ibid.*, p. 14.

the case, school systems in increasing numbers adopted rules against the married woman teacher prior to the war, and the practice, no doubt, will return in the future if there is an over-supply of teachers.

Sex

Whether or not one sex will be favored over the other in the selection of teachers depends upon the type of position to be filled and upon the views of the employing official regarding the sex of the teacher and educational efficiency. Many school administrators take the position that a larger proportion of men in education would result in an improved professional status and in some instances in a better educational product. A few would argue that there should be at least one man in every elementary school where any large number of teachers is employed and that at least 50 per cent of a high school faculty should be men. In other than exceptional cases women are favored more for elementary positions than men. For high school positions the choice depends to a great extent upon the type of work to be done.

Age

In years past, when qualifications for entering the teaching profession were extremely low, it was frequently necessary to place some restrictions on the age at which teachers might enter the profession in order to insure a reasonable degree of maturity. Today much of the need for such precautions has passed, for it is rarely possible for an individual to become properly qualified for teaching before reaching an age acceptable to most employing officials. However, there is still some opposition on the part of administrators to the employment of teachers who lack maturity, and likewise to the employment of those of advanced age. One school system with which the writer is acquainted has written into its rules and regulations the provision that "no application will be received for a regular teaching position or for a position as teacher of any special subject or for any principalship from any individual who will have reached or exceeded the

age of fifty years before the beginning of the school term for which the application is made." In general, however, the applicant, if neither exceptionally young nor old, may assume that his age will have only a slight bearing on the question of appointment except as it determines the amount and character of his experience.

Prejudice

In this category there might be included any factor which, though only remotely or not at all related to teaching efficiency and the improvement of the profession, enters into the selection and appointment of teachers. Residence, marital status, age, religion, and sex might, for example, all be thus classified, if they are permitted to influence teacher selection without regard to their effect on the welfare of the schools. On the other hand, they should not be so described if they are allowed to influence teacher selection only to the degree that they determine efficiency in the position to be filled.

There are factors, however, which in many instances have an important bearing on teacher selection, but which by no stretch of the imagination can be said to be related to educational efficiency. These factors may, without qualifications, be defined as elements of prejudice. Most important in this category are the influence of relationship, political influence, and the influence of money. Thousands of teachers are appointed annually because of their relationship to a board member, trustee, or other school official, or because of the political influence that they or their friends or relatives may bring to bear on employing officials. Worse than either condition is the actual buying of positions from school trustees, a practice not at all uncommon in certain rural areas.

The candidate for a teaching position may feel reasonably certain that if the appointment in question is in the hands of a professionally trained man of high reputation, the factors of teaching experience, preparation, professional reputation, and personality will almost wholly determine the issue. Residence,

marital status, age, religion, and sex may be given some consideration if they appear to have any real bearing on the efficiency of the work to be assigned. Relationship, political and personal influence, and monetary considerations will be totally disregarded. On the other hand, when the employment of teachers is in nonprofessional hands, almost any type of practice may prevail.

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Chapter 7

SALARY

AMONG THE administrative problems that immediately concern the classroom teacher none is more important than that of salary. Teachers, like all other people, must live, and regardless of how professional they may be or how genuinely interested in their work, the salary question is frequently in the forefront of their thinking. The individual who concerns himself more with his salary than with his professional reputation is, no doubt, to be condemned. On the other hand, the teacher who is rendering satisfactory service cannot be blamed for insisting on proper remuneration. Like any other worker, he is returning a benefit to his employer, and, like any other worker, he may justly demand pay commensurate with the service rendered. The individual teacher has a right to interest himself in the salary problem without being accused of being selfish and unprofessional. Furthermore, the teaching body as a whole must give the question intelligent consideration and, at frequent intervals, take vigorous action if anything approaching fair treatment is to be had. It is well, therefore, that the prospective teacher familiarize himself with the more fundamental problems involved. He should be familiar with the current status of teachers' salaries; he should recognize the factors that influence the general level of salaries in the profession; he should know the factors that are likely to determine the individual teacher's salary; and he should be familiar with the principles and practices governing salary scheduling.

THE STATUS OF TEACHERS' SALARIES

Generalizations about the status of teachers' salaries are difficult to make. There are salaries that are pitifully low, irrespective of the standard by which they are judged. On the other

hand, it is possible to point out situations where the teacher's income is relatively high whether evaluated in terms of the service rendered or in terms of the incomes of other workers. In fact, if the teaching profession is assumed to include all engaged in educational work—whether in actual teaching or administration and whether in the elementary school, the secondary school, or the institution of higher learning—it is possible to prove statistically almost anything that one desires to prove. It can be shown, for example, that there are thousands of teachers in the United States who are paid salaries that could not possibly provide subsistence for a period of 12 months. In order that they may eat, clothe themselves, and find a place to live, such teachers either must have other sources of income or must remain in part dependent on parents or other relatives. In contrast to this group is the large number of individuals engaged in educational work whose incomes are such as to place them in the upper 8 or 9 per cent of all gainfully employed persons in the United States. If we consider the former group only, we are inclined to say that all teachers' salaries are far too low and that they should be greatly increased, whereas to center our attention on the latter group is to encourage the belief that teachers are well or even excessively paid. The fact that neither conclusion is correct suggests that statistical data on teachers' salaries need careful interpretation, and that generalizations, unless properly qualified, are likely to be misleading.

Current Salaries

In general, the lowest salaries in the teaching profession are found in the rural schools. Table 2 gives a picture of rural teachers' salaries in the United States just prior to World War II. At that time the mean salary for the one-teacher school was \$668, for the two-or-more-teacher school \$881, and for schools in towns having under 2,500 in population \$1,005 a year. The mean salary for rural teachers in the 20 states on which these averages are based amounted to \$851.¹ It might be expected

¹ National Education Association, Committee on the Economic Status of the Rural Teacher, *Teachers in Rural Communities*, p. 44. Washington: The Association, 1939.

that higher costs of living and scarcity of trained teachers would have raised the mean salary considerably during the war years. The estimates given, however, at The White House Conference on Rural Education indicate that salaries were increased on the average only 8 per cent. The annual salaries paid to 254,000 rural teachers in 1944 did not exceed \$1,200, and 44,000 received not more than \$600. The average annual salaries for all rural teachers amounted to only \$967.²

TABLE 2

Mean School Salaries of the White Men and Women Teachers in Different Areas and Types of Schools³

Type of School	Men		Women		Both Sexes
	North ^a	South ^b	North ^a	South ^b	
One-teacher schools	\$ 722	\$ 575	\$669	\$621	\$ 668
Two-or-more-teacher schools	1,110	1,007	931	749	881
Towns under 2,500 in population . .	1,323	1,240	965	806	1,005
All types	\$1,052	\$ 941	\$855	\$725	\$ 851

^a California, Colorado, Connecticut, Idaho, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Maine, Michigan, New Mexico, North Dakota, Oregon, and Pennsylvania.

^b Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Texas.

In reviewing Table 2 one must bear in mind that the mean salaries shown do not give the range of salaries for men and women teachers in rural schools. If these data were available, gross differences would be evident between the lowest and highest salaries paid within states and between states. Some conception of differences in rural teachers' salaries may be gained, nevertheless, by comparing the mean salaries of white men and women teachers in different states. The average salary for men and women teachers in Georgia amounted to \$817 and \$486 respectively, or a combined average of \$651.50. On the other hand, the average salary for men teachers in California

² *The White House Conference on Rural Education*, p. 32. Washington: National Education Association, 1945.

³ National Education Association, Committee on the Economic Status of Rural Teachers, *Teachers in Rural Communities*, p. 44.

was found to be \$1,908 and \$1,414 for women teachers in that state, or a combined average of \$1,501. The difference in salaries for men and women teachers in these two states representing the extremes in the distribution was 169 per cent.⁴

A more cheerful situation is revealed by the figures in Table 3 which show the median salaries paid for various types of educational service in the cities of the United States. These median salaries range from \$1,537 paid to elementary teachers in cities of 2,500 to 5,000 population to \$9,150 paid to superintendents in cities of more than 100,000 population. It must be remembered that the figures represent central tendencies only and that in each classification there are approximately half getting more and half getting less than the median salary.

TABLE 3

Salaries Paid Administrative Officers and Teachers in City School Systems, 1944-45⁵

Population Group	Median Salaries Paid					
	Superintendents	High School Principals	Elementary School [*] Principals	High School Teachers	Junior High School Teachers	Elementary School Teachers
Over 100,000.....	\$9,150	\$5,310	\$3,772	\$3,214	\$2,812	\$2,602
30,000 to 100,000..	6,750	4,396	2,880	2,464	2,226	1,980
10,000 to 30,000...	5,250	3,657	2,644	2,235	1,978	1,780
5,000 to 10,000....	4,339	3,139	2,510	2,024	1,859	1,662
2,500 to 5,000.....	3,736	2,757	2,457	1,885	1,726	1,537

* Includes only non-teaching principals.

Since 1945 salaries of teachers in rural and urban centers have been increased in consequence of a sharp rise in living costs and a critical shortage of qualified instructional personnel. Though data are not available showing changes in salaries of rural teachers, a Research Bulletin of the National Education Association

⁴ *Ibid.*, pp. 44-45.

⁵ *Salaries of City-School Employees, 1944-45*, pp. 6-10. Research Bulletin, Vol. XXIII, No. 1. Washington. Research Division, National Education Association. February, 1945.

covers those that have taken place in city systems for the school year 1946-47.⁶ According to the bulletin, the average salary paid to elementary teachers in cities over 100,000 in population was \$2,897 or a gain of 11.3 per cent over the preceding year; \$3,075 for junior high school teachers or a gain of 9.4 per cent; and \$3,593 for high school teachers or a gain of 11.8 per cent. Slightly higher percentage gains were made in cities between 30,000 and 100,000 in population. In these cities, the average salary paid to elementary school teachers was \$2,288 or an increase of 15.6 per cent; \$2,546 for junior high school teachers or an increase of 14.4 per cent; and, \$2,774 for high school teachers or an increase of 12.6 per cent. Similar percentage increases took place in communities having populations lower than 30,000.

The beginning teacher may be interested in knowing some of the higher salaries received by teachers and administrators in public elementary and secondary schools of the United States for the school year 1946-47.⁷ For example, an appreciable number of teachers at the elementary level in cities over 30,000 in population received salaries in excess of \$4,000. At the same time, approximately 12,000 high school teachers out of 61,605 were paid \$4,100 and nearly one half of this number received salaries of \$4,800 or more. The data likewise show that 170 superintendents of the 303 included in the study received an annual salary of \$7,500 or more. Seventy of them, to be exact, were paid more than \$10,000 a year for their services. It is probable that salaries of teachers and administrators will continue to increase as the public learns to appreciate the value of services rendered by men and women in the field of public education.

Salary Trends

As indicated previously, there is a general tendency for economic trends to be reflected in teachers' salaries. However, there has not been in the past a really close correspondence between the cost-of-living index and the salary level. Teachers'

⁶ *Salaries of City-School Employees, 1946-47*, pp. 6-7. Research Bulletin, Vol. XXV, No. 1. Washington: Research Division, National Education Association, 1947.

⁷ *Ibid.*, pp. 12, 16.

salaries tend to rise during periods of prosperity, but usually not in proportion to other forms of income or to the cost of living. During a period of economic stress, on the other hand, teachers' salaries are likely to be depressed in excess of the general fall in wages and prices. This general tendency may be illustrated by a comparison of the increases in real salaries as indicated by the purchasing power of the dollar. In 1939-40 the average annual salary of teachers, supervisors, and principals in the United States was estimated to be \$1,441. By 1942-43 this average had risen to \$1,550, which represents an increase of approximately 7.5 per cent in the actual amount paid. Two years later the average salary had risen to \$1,786—a rise of about 24 per cent over the base year. But, because prices that make up living costs rose faster than salaries, the purchasing power of the average salary was lower. Salary adjustments in many communities and price stabilization, according to the Office of Price Administration, helped to raise the teachers' purchasing power to an index of about 96 or 4 per cent below the 1939-40 base level.⁸ Assuming the correctness of these figures, we find in them a striking contrast to conditions during the period following the beginning of World War I. In 1913 the average annual salary of teachers in this country was estimated to be \$512. By 1926 this average has risen to \$1,275—an increase of approximately 149 per cent in the actual amount paid. However, the purchasing power of the latter salary was only 42 per cent greater than the purchasing power of the \$512 in 1913.⁹ Fortunately teachers have been in a far better position to meet living costs during the recent war and current postwar periods even though salaries have not kept pace with prices.

In addition to the rough correspondence between salaries and economic conditions, certain other tendencies are revealed by studies of salary data. Almost all investigations involving large numbers of unselected teachers show that men are in gen-

⁸ *Price Control and Teachers' Purchasing Power in 1944-45*. Washington: Department of Information, Office of Price Administration, September, 1945 (mimeographed).

⁹ *The Scheduling of Teachers' Salaries*, p. 116, Research Bulletin, Vol. V, No. 3. Washington: Research Division, National Education Association, May, 1927.

eral better paid than women, that experienced teachers receive larger salaries than inexperienced, that salaries are progressively larger through the three levels of the school system—elementary, secondary, and higher—and that the size of the salary tends to increase with the population of the community represented.

Evaluating the Teacher's Salary

In the foregoing discussion it is suggested that an absolute salary or a salary average is almost meaningless unless a variety of other factors are taken into consideration. Is a particular salary too low, too high, or approximately right? A question of this kind can be answered only in relative terms. What are the responsibilities assumed and how valuable is the service rendered? How much does it cost the teacher to live? These are all questions that must be answered before a salary can be fairly evaluated.

We are disturbed by the fact that any teacher receives a salary as low as \$600 per year; and there is no doubt that the practice of paying teachers salaries that fail to provide subsistence is to be strongly condemned. Yet when it is pointed out that the teacher receiving this low salary is possibly a youngster with little or no experience, with no professional preparation of consequence, and with no formal education above high school graduation, the situation takes on an entirely different aspect. After viewing the case in this light, one might be inclined to ask whether there is any other occupation in which this same individual could make much more than \$600 per year. Again, it might be pointed out that there are teachers who, because of inadequate training and a lack of initiative or native ability, are not worth as much as \$600 per year to the community that they serve. Such considerations do not justify the pitifully low salaries frequently paid teachers, but they do help to explain them.

It will be recalled that the median salary of a woman teacher in Georgia was \$486 as compared with \$1,414 in California. As the figures stand, they do not represent a fair comparison of the treatment accorded teachers by these two states. We have no

evidence of the comparative standards and costs of living. We know nothing about the relative training or experience of the teachers represented. Facts are lacking concerning the types of positions held and the size of the communities involved. We are without data describing the average wealth of the states and the sources from which income for schools is derived. In other words, it is a questionable practice to attempt an evaluation of teachers' salaries except in terms of certain conditioning factors, the most important of which are preparation, experience, sex, the level of the school system in which the teaching is done, the type of service rendered, the cost of living, the population, and the wealth of the state. Although it is questionable whether each of these factors should in itself constitute a cause for a salary differential, the point is that in a typical situation each one does. It is necessary, therefore, in making comparisons of teachers' salaries to neglect consideration of none of the conditions mentioned if errors in judgment are to be avoided. Unreliable comparisons and erroneous interpretations of salary data can do the profession no good and may do it serious harm.

FACTORS DETERMINING THE GENERAL LEVEL OF TEACHERS' SALARIES

If teachers' salaries are to be improved, the improvement must come as a result of the efforts of the members of the profession. It is important, therefore, that teachers give some thought to the factors that determine the salary level. Until we can obtain a rather clear conception of the causes of existing conditions, there is little likelihood that we shall effect any material change in these conditions. If it is true that teachers' salaries are usually lower than they should be, it is our business to discover the causes in order that we may take intelligent action to eliminate them.

A careful consideration of the problem will suggest that there are probably five factors that are of fundamental importance as determiners of the general level of teachers' salaries. These factors are the current economic situation, the value society attaches to the school and its product, the preparation required for entrance to the profession, the predominance of women in the

profession, and the relationship between the supply of teachers and the demand for their services. Each of the five factors will be discussed briefly in the following paragraphs.

The Economic Situation

Elsewhere it has been suggested that teachers' salaries tend to rise and fall with the general price level, but that the correspondence between salaries and economic conditions is not always so close as might be desired. If fluctuations in teachers' salaries actually occurred in close correspondence with the cost of living for teachers, there would be little reason to be concerned about this factor, since the highness or lowness of a salary is after all a relative matter and can be estimated accurately only in terms of what it will purchase. In times of depression teachers should be willing to accept reasonable reductions in salary, and in periods of high prices they should be satisfied with equitable increases. However, when teachers' salaries lag behind a general rise in prices or when the decline in the salary level is greater than the general decline in the cost of living, the matter is one of considerable concern to the profession. The chief difficulty has been that we have had no reliable measures of costs of living among teachers by which we could judge whether or not general increases or decreases in salaries were justified.

During the so-called period of prosperity just preceding 1929, teachers and administrators pointed to the fact that the rise in the level of teachers' salaries was not proportional to the rise in the cost of living as reflected by such indexes as were then available. However, when the depression came and boards of education began to employ these same indexes as an excuse for lowering salaries, the entire problem assumed a different aspect. Students of the subject began to ask whether or not the cost-of-living index for workingmen and their families, which had formerly been used as a criterion, was properly applicable to teachers. Investigations suggested that it was not. We had apparently erred first in assuming that an index such as that established by the United States Bureau of Labor for the nation as a whole was applicable alike in all communities and, second, in

taking for granted that an index based on the budgets of workmen was a satisfactory measure for evaluating teachers' salaries. As pointed out in one study, the particular fallacies involved in applying the Bureau's index to teachers are as follows:

1. The weights used to construct the index number are based on an analysis of the budgets of wage earners and small-salaried workers, which are quite different from the budgets of teachers in many communities.
2. Fluctuations in the price of board tend to lag behind changes in retail food prices.
3. Salary increases tend to lag behind upward changes in cost of living.
4. The cost of living, and changes therein, vary in different localities.
5. It should not be assumed that the salary level in 1913 or 1914 [the year upon which the index is based] was adequate to support teachers at a suitable standard of living.
6. Recent changes in the professional preparation of teachers warrant the payment of salaries which will permit a higher standard of living than in the past.¹⁰

If teachers' salaries are to bear a proper relation to costs of living for teachers, we must develop indexes that are accurate and properly applicable to the profession, and we must see that they are applied intelligently in increasing or decreasing salaries. Furthermore, we must bear in mind that the same indexes that we employ to raise the salary level in periods of prosperity can rightfully be employed by boards of education and taxpayers as arguments for lowering the salary level in times of economic stress. If the measures are accurate, they can and must be applied both ways.

The Value of Education

It seems reasonable to assume that society will pay for any service in terms of the value it places on that service. One of

¹⁰ *Estimating Changes in Teachers' Cost of Living*, p. 3. Educational Research Service Circular, No. 1. Washington: National Education Association, 1933.

the paradoxes of modern education is the willingness of the American people to pay "lip service" to education, but to refuse at the same time to give it the support that it appears to deserve. From the pulpit and platform and in the press we are constantly reminded of the great contribution of the American school system and of the necessity of education to the continuity of a democratic society. Yet the taxpayer constantly complains of the school tax burden, and in times of economic stress condones or even supports state legislatures in their ruthless and unintelligent slashing of school budgets. Do the people of America place a high value on the services rendered by the public schools or do they not? If the manner in which the taxpayer reacts to the support of education is any indication, the answer must be in the negative. Why should this be the case? Is it because the school system actually does render less service to society than members of the profession have believed, or is it because we have failed to convince the layman of the value of the educational product? The latter is probably the better explanation. The results of a formal education are exceedingly intangible and difficult to isolate. We believe that education pays large dividends, but we have not offered tangible evidence like that furnished by the medical profession, dentistry, architecture, and engineering. It is not surprising, therefore, that teachers are paid less than members of these professions. The taxpayer can scarcely be blamed for his hesitancy in paying freely for something that he cannot be certain he is receiving. Then, too, it is characteristic of the American people to be more careful of their obligations to individuals than of their responsibilities to society. Consequently, the fact that schools are supported from tax money, whereas the other professions are not, in part explains the apparently low value placed on the work.

Consideration of this problem suggests that one of the surest means of raising the general level of teachers' salaries is through a larger and more effective service and through the development of measures that will isolate and weigh the value of a formal education. Our efforts in the field of social measurement often have been crude and have been received in many instances with

considerable skepticism even by members of the teaching profession, but they must be continued if we are ever to convince the taxpayer that the educational product is something for which he should be willing to pay much more than he is at present paying.

Teacher Preparation

The status of teacher preparation has been considered in detail in a preceding chapter. Here it is discussed briefly in its relationship to the general level of teachers' salaries.

Society tends to value an individual's services in terms of the preparation he makes for his work. In the mind of the average layman, a young man who has completed seven years of study above high school graduation in medical schools and hospitals is worthy the name of specialist and deserves a high reward for his services. On the other hand, the teacher who has little or no training or whose preparation is exceedingly general in nature is scarcely to be regarded as a member of a profession. As a result, it is not surprising that society does not place a high value on his services. It is useless for teachers to expect salaries comparable with the incomes in other professions until their training approximates, both in quantity and quality, the preparation required in these other fields of work. Teaching will become a genuine profession and teachers will be paid as professional men and women only when they prepare for their work through an extended period of specialized training. The present status of teacher preparation and the fact that teachers make little or no investment in working equipment partially explain the relatively low level of teachers' salaries.

Predominance of Women

The predominance of women in the teaching profession is offered as one explanation of the low incomes in this type of work. Tradition dictates that women shall be paid less than men for equivalent work. Consequently, any profession that is composed largely of women is likely to find itself with a relatively low salary level. It is difficult to say whether teachers'

salaries remain low because there are so many women in the profession or whether the predominance of women is owing to the fact that they can be employed for lower salaries than men, but the fact remains that the two conditions are closely associated. In any case, it seems probable that an increase in the proportion of men in the teaching profession will tend to effect an improvement in salaries.

Supply and Demand

Teaching service like any other salable product is subject to the economic law of supply and demand, and the salary level in the profession is at all times affected by the number of teachers seeking employment. If the number of teaching positions is greater than the number of people eligible to teach, as was the case during and immediately following World War II, the advantage in bargaining is with the teacher. Under such conditions, administrators and boards of education are forced to bid higher for the services of competent teachers and a general rise in salaries occurs. On the other hand, the advantage is with the employing official whenever there are more teachers seeking positions than there are positions to be filled, and under such conditions salaries are forced down to lower levels.

One of the chief reasons why teachers' salaries were slashed with such complete abandon during the years of the depression was the oversupply of candidates for teaching positions. Boards of education, finding themselves in difficult financial straits, turned to the salary budget to effect savings when it became apparent that hundreds of competent teachers were seeking employment. Their argument was simple and unanswerable. Why should they pay \$150 per month for a teacher when dozens of able and willing people were ready to do the work for \$100 per month? If they could meet their obligation to the child and at the same time save the taxpayer money, it was the proper thing to do. The result was an unprecedented fall in the general level of teachers' salaries.

What is the remedy to be? Some would argue that the problem will furnish its own solution. As salaries go down, fewer

and fewer young men and women will enter the profession and eventually the demand will again exceed the supply. Then salaries will rise again, more people will enlist in the work, and the whole process will be repeated. If we assume that this does happen, is such a situation to be desired either from the standpoint of the child or the teachers? Certainly such a laissez-faire policy is completely out of harmony with present-day economic thinking. Other critics of the situation suggest that the responsibility for regulating the supply of teachers rests with the teacher-training institutions and the state. They would recommend that careful studies be made of the demand for teachers and that the teacher-training institutions of a state accept only sufficient candidates to maintain a proper balance between supply and demand. This proposal sounds logical and may at some future time prove to be the solution to the problem. However, it is at present fraught with many difficulties and dangers, particularly where state-supported institutions are involved.

Whatever the solution, the initiative will have to be taken by the teachers themselves. Universities, liberal arts colleges, and teachers colleges in most cases will continue to concern themselves with increasing their enrollments with little regard for the effect of their policies on the salaries of teachers, and the taxpayer and legislator will give the problem scarcely a moment's notice until compelled to do so. If the supply of teachers is to be controlled to the end that equitable salary levels may be maintained, the teachers themselves must study the problem and formulate a plan of action.

FACTORS DETERMINING THE SALARY OF THE INDIVIDUAL TEACHER

Within the limits set by the five factors mentioned above, what conditions determine whether or not the salary of a particular teacher will be high, average, or low? Obviously, the same factors do not operate in all situations. It is possible, however, to list certain elements, one or more of which will determine in nearly all situations the salary the teacher is to receive. These include the relative income and effort of the community

in which the teacher is working, teaching experience, the quantity and quality of the teacher's preparation, the professional reputation of the teacher, the type of position held, the sex of the teachers, and such miscellaneous factors as political "pull" and family relationship. The bearing that each of these factors may have on the salary of the teacher is so evident that a separate consideration of each is unnecessary. More important than a mere discussion of the relationship of each of the factors to the salary is the problem of whether all of these seven factors should be allowed to enter into the determination of the salary and the extent to which each can properly be emphasized.

Where there is no established plan for the payment of teachers, the candidate for a position is placed at a disadvantage in two ways. Unless he is better informed than most teachers are, he has little to guide him in the business of bargaining with the employing officer. Without a knowledge of what other teachers in the system are receiving he is in danger of selling his services too cheaply or of placing his price so high as to exclude his application from further consideration. The advantage in the bargaining is almost entirely with the employing officer, for he almost always has at hand information that has not been made available to the teacher. The second disadvantage of the customary procedure of random bargaining is that irrelevant factors frequently help to determine the salary of the teacher, whereas important elements are underemphasized or entirely neglected. Few would dispute the fact that the salary of the teacher should be determined on the basis of teaching efficiency, and most would agree that teaching experience and preparation are at least rough indexes of teaching ability. Some would argue that position and sex should have nothing to do with the salary so long as the task and the results obtained are otherwise equivalent; others feel that a salary differential for men and women is justifiable and that there are sound reasons for attaching larger salaries to some teaching positions than to others; and virtually all are agreed that such irrelevant factors as political "pull" and family relationship should have nothing to do with the salary paid.

With a view to the elimination of many of the injustices that come about as a result of bargaining and with a view to seeing

that the proper factors are emphasized, students of school administration have for several years advocated the payment of teachers on the basis of some clearly defined plan. Such a plan is commonly known as a salary schedule.

SALARY SCHEDULES

A salary schedule is a device that automatically determines the salary of a teacher on the basis of certain factors thought to be important. More specifically, it may be described as "a plan for the payment of school employees formally adopted by the board of education or school committee, which to a large degree automatically determines the beginning salary, the amount and number of yearly increases, and the maximum salary received by various groups of teachers, principals, and other employees with specified qualifications."¹¹ The exact nature of a salary schedule and the particular factors upon which it is based will be determined by the opinions of those responsible for its construction and by the peculiar demands of the school system it is designed to serve. In general, however, all salary schedules for teachers involve two or more of the following factors: position, experience, preparation, merit, and sex.

For example, a schedule might be employed that would ignore all factors other than position and experience. Such a schedule is illustrated by Table 4. Except for the fact that different entering qualifications are set for the three types of positions, preparation has nothing to do with the determination of a teacher's salary under a plan of this kind. Men and women are paid the same salary when their position and experience are the same, and teaching efficiency or merit is ignored except as it is indicated by experience. An elementary teacher is started at an annual salary of \$1,000, and for each succeeding year of experience, up to a maximum of six, an increment of \$50 is paid. These increases for experience are commonly referred to as "automatic increments." The salaries for junior and senior high school teachers are similarly determined except that the basic salaries

¹¹ *The Scheduling of Teachers' Salaries*, p. 159. Research Bulletin of the National Education Association, Vol. V, No. 3. Washington: National Education Association, May, 1927.

for these two types of positions are \$1,200 and \$1,400, and the maximum salaries, \$1,500 and \$1,700.

A second type of salary schedule is illustrated in Table 5.

TABLE 4

A Salary Schedule Based on Position and Experience

Position*	Number of Years of Experience						
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
Elementary.....	\$1,000	\$1,050	\$1,100	\$1,150	\$1,200	\$1,250	\$1,300
Junior High School.....	1,200	1,250	1,300	1,350	1,400	1,450	1,500
Senior High School.....	1,400	1,450	1,500	1,550	1,600	1,650	1,700

* The minimum preparation required for elementary teachers is two years of training above high school graduation. For junior high school teachers the minimum is three years, and for senior high school teachers, four years.

Under an arrangement of this type, salaries are based on preparation, stated in terms of semester hours and degrees, and on teaching experience. Sex, teaching position, and merit are ignored,

TABLE 5

A Salary Schedule Based on Preparation and Experience

Preparation in Semester Hours of College Training	Number of Years of Experience							
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
64.....	\$1,010	\$1,060	\$1,110	\$1,160	\$1,210			
72.....	1,060	1,110	1,160	1,210	1,260	\$1,310		
80.....	1,110	1,160	1,210	1,260	1,310	1,360	\$1,410	
88.....	1,160	1,210	1,260	1,310	1,360	1,410	1,460	\$1,510
96.....	1,210	1,260	1,310	1,360	1,410	1,460	1,510	1,560
104.....	1,260	1,310	1,360	1,410	1,460	1,510	1,560	1,610
112.....	1,310	1,360	1,410	1,460	1,510	1,560	1,610	1,660
120.....	1,360	1,410	1,460	1,510	1,560	1,610	1,660	1,710
128 (A.B.)								
(B.S.).....	1,500	1,550	1,600	1,650	1,700	1,750	1,800	1,850
136.....	1,550	1,600	1,650	1,700	1,750	1,800	1,850	1,900
144.....	1,600	1,650	1,700	1,750	1,800	1,850	1,900	1,950
152.....	1,650	1,700	1,750	1,800	1,850	1,900	1,950	2,000
160 (M.A.)....	1,700	1,750	1,800	1,850	1,900	1,950	2,000	2,050

except as the last is presumed to be reflected by preparation and experience. According to this schedule, any teacher, regardless of position and sex, with an A.B. degree and three years of teaching experience would receive \$1,650. There would be a clear understanding between such a teacher and the administration that the salary the following year would be \$1,700 unless the preparation of the teacher was increased to 136 semester hours. For the teacher with no previous experience, the salary called for by the schedule makes provision for seven automatic increments, but the full number of these increments is not granted unless the teacher has had 88 or more semester hours of training.

A schedule that gives recognition to position, preparation, and experience is shown in Table 6. This schedule also provides for a salary differential for men teaching in the senior high school. According to this plan, minimum salaries range from \$1,600 for the elementary teacher with two years of preparation to \$2,150 for teachers in the trade school, for men employed in the senior high schools who have earned the bachelor's degree, and for both men and women employed in senior high schools who have completed one year of graduate work. The annual increments vary in amount from \$100 to \$200, and are paid for eight, nine, or ten years. Maximum salaries range from \$2,400 to \$3,700. The rules governing the schedule include definite specifications as to the nature of the teacher's preparation, and advanced training.

With some understanding of the general nature of a salary schedule and of the forms which such an instrument may take, we turn next to a more detailed analysis of certain aspects of salary scheduling. The factors to be considered are those with which the teacher should be acquainted if he is ever to participate intelligently in the formulation of salary schedules.

The Single Salary Schedule

The single salary schedule is commonly defined as a plan whereby all teachers of equal preparation and equal experience are paid the same salary regardless of position held, sex, race, or marital status. Most single salary schedules recognize different

levels of professional preparation whereas the older salary schedules are based upon the school position held—elementary, junior, or senior high school.

Advocates of the single salary schedules base their argument on the principle that one teaching position is neither more important nor more difficult than another. As long as preparation, ex-

TABLE 6

A Salary Schedule Involving the Factors of Position, Preparation, Experience, and Sex

<i>Schedule</i>	<i>Preparation</i>	<i>Minimum Salary</i>	<i>Annual Increments</i>	<i>Maximum Salary</i>
ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS				
I	Successful completion of a two-year course in normal school or the equivalent	\$1,600	8 x \$100	\$2,400
II	Successful completion of a three-year course in normal school or the equivalent	1,700	9 x \$100	2,600
III	Successful completion of four years of college work with a standard bachelor's degree or the equivalent	1,800	9 x \$100	2,700
JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS				
I	Successful completion of a three-year course in normal school or the equivalent	1,800	9 x \$100	2,700
II	Successful completion of four years of college work with a standard bachelor's degree or the equivalent	1,900	1 x \$100 & 8 x \$125	3,000
TRADE SCHOOL				
I	Successful completion of a three-year course in normal school or college or the equivalent in trade experience	2,150	8 x \$125	3,150
II	Successful completion of four years of college work or the equivalent in trade experience	2,150	10 x \$125	3,400

TABLE 6 (Continued)

<i>Schedule</i>	<i>Preparation</i>	<i>Minimum Salary</i>	<i>Annual Increments</i>	<i>Maximum Salary</i>
SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS				
I	Women—Successful completion of four years of college work with a standard bachelor's degree or equivalent	\$2,000	8 x \$150 & 1 x \$100	\$3,300
II	Men—Successful completion of four years of college work with a standard bachelor's degree or the equivalent	2,150	9 x \$150 & 1 x \$100	3,600
III	Women and Men—Successful completion of five years of college work with a standard master's degree or the equivalent	2,150	9 x \$150 & 1 x \$200	3,700

perience, and merit—where this is considered—are equal, teachers should be paid the same regardless of the level at which they are teaching or the type of work they are doing. Though this position is in direct contradiction to popular opinion that high school teaching is more difficult and important than elementary school teaching, nearly all students of education are agreed that a difference should not be made between the salaries of elementary and secondary school teachers.

Many administrators are reluctant to change from the position to the preparation type of salary schedule on grounds that such a change frequently results in the lowering of the pay of high school teachers without any substantial improvement in the salary level of the elementary group. This consideration was studied by Davis who pointed out that, so far as large cities are concerned where single salary schedules were adopted between 1931 and 1943, no case was found showing a reduction in the pay of high school teachers. She states that:

A policy usually followed in putting a new schedule into effect is that no one's present salary shall be reduced. Those

receiving salaries above the new schedule continue to receive those salaries but receive no further raises unless they become entitled to them eventually through the operation of the schedule itself. Where this principle is followed no high school teacher would have his salary reduced, even in the rare schedules where it is necessary to reduce certain top salaries formerly scheduled.¹²

However, it must be recognized that, even where a single salary schedule is in operation, the average salary of high school teachers is often higher than the average pay of elementary teachers because the former group have undergone more preparation. This difference in preparation is disappearing rapidly in view of the fact that elementary teachers today are required to have preparation equal to that of secondary teachers in most progressive school systems. It should be noted further that, where single salary schedules have been adopted, some school systems will not appoint anyone who does not hold the bachelor's degree.

A single salary schedule may provide a supermaximum salary as a reward for superior teaching service. Where this is done, salary classes are set up for different levels of training, with a supermaximum for outstanding teachers at each level except the highest. An illustration of this is found in the salary schedule of Lincoln, Nebraska:

Two years of preparation—minimum \$1,000, 10 increments of \$50, normal maximum \$1,500, supermaximum \$1,600.

Three years—minimum \$1,000, 10 increments of \$50, normal maximum \$1,500, supermaximum \$1,800.

Four years—minimum \$1,100, 14 increments of \$50, normal maximum \$1,800, supermaximum \$2,000.

Five years—minimum \$1,200, 16 increments of \$50, normal maximum \$2,000, supermaximum \$2,200.

Six years—minimum \$1,300, 18 increments of \$50, normal maximum \$2,200.¹³

¹² Hazel Davis, "Interest Grows in the Single Salary Schedule," *American School Board Journal*, 108:32, June, 1944.

¹³ Hazel Davis, *op. cit.*, p. 31.

Differentials based upon sex and dependency are found in some single salary schedules. In Springfield, Massachusetts, for example, a married man may receive an allowance of \$100 for a wife and \$50 for each dependent child, with a maximum family allowance of \$200. Whether there is any real justification for such a differential is a moot question. Certainly, equal pay for equal ability, preparation, and experience is an equitable principle to follow. The difficulty is not that the principle is unsound, but that its application stands in the way of achieving another important objective. Most school administrators believe that there should be more men engaged in teaching, and most of them are trying to increase the proportion of men on the teaching staff. However, they are not interested merely in the employment of any individual of the male sex. They want vigorous men with ability, superior training, and good character, but they find they cannot employ such men for the salaries that will buy the services of superior women teachers. They discover, in other words, that the economics of the single salary schedule for men and women is at fault. As one writer has stated it:

Seldom is one paid for what he is worth; the public pays what it has to. The idea of "equal pay for equal work," which suits so well the campaign purposes of women teachers for salaries as high as men's, is as naive as it is engaging. A surface acquaintance with everyday economics must convince one that wages, like other values, are subject to the influence of the laws of supply and demand. . . .

I believe in a differential in salary for men, not because they deserve it, but because school administrators cannot get the men they want without it, or they have to pay salaries to everybody so high that the maintenance of the salary schedule is jeopardized and its purpose is defeated. Men should be in our schools in much larger numbers than they are at present, and to get men we have to pay them more because they can earn more in other professions and in certain industries.¹⁴

¹⁴ Douglas E. Scates, *Needed Changes in the Single-Salary Schedule*, pp. 340-41. Educational Research Bulletin, Vol. XI, No. 13, Columbus, Ohio: College of Education, Ohio State University.

Characteristics common to other types of schedules may be found in single salary schedules of the kind just discussed. A definite minimum for inexperienced teachers in various salary classes exists together with a definite number of fixed annual increments and a maximum which is reached after a definite period of service. Among the single salary schedules in operation, differences are found in amounts of salary, levels of preparation for various salary classes, size and spacing of increments, sex, dependence, and merit. The common factor in all single salary schedules is equal pay for equal preparation and experience regardless of the level of teaching or the type of work done.

That the trend in salary schedules is toward the single type is borne out in a recent survey of salary schedules in 171 school systems in cities 30,000 to 100,000 in population. According to this survey, 90 of the 171 schedules studied, or 53 per cent, were single salary schedules. Five years previously, or in 1940-41, only 37 per cent of these cities had single salary schedules.¹⁵ There is reason to believe that increasingly more and more school systems will adopt single salary schedules.

The Basic Salary

The determination of the basic salary is one of the most important aspects of salary scheduling. The minimum salary not only establishes rather definitely the quality of teaching recruit that the system will be able to employ, but also roughly sets the limits of all other salaries in the schedule. From a selfish point of view, a board of education may argue that the basic salary should be just high enough to purchase the quality of service that the system needs, and no higher. However, there are other aspects of the problem to be considered. The beginning teacher, even if regarded as an apprentice, should have a right to an annual wage that will provide a living for a period of 12 months. What this will be depends on several factors, the most important of which are the responsibility of the teacher for the support of

¹⁵ Educational Research Service, *Teachers' Salary Schedules in 171 School Systems in Cities 30,000 to 100,000 in Population, 1944-45*, p. 3. Washington: American Association of School Administrators and Research Division of the National Education Association, August, 1945.

others and the cost of living in the community in which he works. In the establishment of the basic salary, most administrators are inclined to ignore the question of dependents and to base the minimum pay on the cost of living of the single woman, sometimes described as the "indispensable" teacher. This practice frequently accounts for the low salaries paid to teachers in some communities. Many cities have made careful studies of living costs in an effort to arrive at the basic salary in a scientific manner.

The tendency today is definitely in the direction of increasing the basic salary for several reasons. First, it is difficult to fill vacancies created by the large number of teachers who were attracted by higher salaries to business and industry during the war years. Second, many college students, who might otherwise enter teaching, recognize that comparable training in other fields offers the promise of richer financial returns after graduation. Third, teachers have voiced strong protest over higher salaries paid to other workers with less formal preparation. Fourth, salary increases for teachers have not kept pace with the progressive rise in living costs so that the purchasing power of their incomes is smaller. Fifth, greater public interest has been aroused in the welfare of the teacher; interested parents and citizens have taken up the cause of teachers in their struggle for economic security. Sixth, laws have been enacted in at least 26 of the 48 states establishing mandatory minimum and maximum salary schedules that represent desirable increases in the lowest scale of salaries which school boards can pay.¹⁶

In addition, the significant relationship of salary to instruction has gained clearer focus in the educational thinking of administrators and school board members who, for many years, have looked at salary strictly from the viewpoint of evaluating it in terms of its instructional contribution. This point was brought out advisedly in the Boston public school survey:

Fundamentally, the reason why salaries are important is that salary policy is educational policy. School systems depend

¹⁶ National Education Association, Committee on Tenure and Academic Freedom, *State Minimum-Salary Standards for Teachers, 1944*, p. 7. Washington: The Association, November, 1944.

upon their personnel, and its recruitment, upgrading and general morale. Salary is a vital factor in this. A school is first of all a place to which the parent sends his child for the fostering of his educational growth. That there may be teachers and other personnel in the school system who are capable and themselves growing in their capacities to deal with the educational growth processes of children and youth is of first importance. The first objective of salary policy must, then, be its contribution to educational growth.¹⁷

Increments for Experience

Nearly all salary schedules make provision for a certain number of automatic increases for teaching experience. These increments are granted on the theory that each year of service, up to a certain point, will increase the efficiency of the teacher, and that the board of education can afford, therefore, to pay more for his services. Anyone will recognize immediately that there are exceptions to this principle. However, most administrators have sufficient confidence in experience as a means of improving teaching to give it a place in the schedule. The remedy for the exceptions to this principle lies not in ignoring experience in the scheduling of salaries, but rather in the dismissal of teachers who cannot show a gain in efficiency as a result of experience.

Another justification for automatic increases in salary is the psychological effect of such increments. In the mind of one writer at least this effect is even more important than are the gains in actual teaching efficiency.

It is not my purpose to try to prove that increments should depend entirely or primarily on the basis of increased merit; but since they do not rest upon this basis, I do not believe that we should attempt to defend them on this basis. I believe the justification for our more or less automatic increases is to be found rather in psychological factors. For one thing, the increases permit us to start young teachers at fairly low salaries, after

¹⁷ *Report of a Survey of the Public Schools of Boston*, George D. Strayer, director, 1944, quoted by Educational Research Service, *op. cit.*, p. 15.

fairly good training, and we seek by means of the published schedule to convince them that teaching is a life work in which they may expect a financial future commensurate with their training and ability. Without such an assurance we could not at all hope to get superior young men and women with good training and with serious purpose at our present beginning salaries. Our increments, therefore, enable us to use the device of a fairly low initial salary with an assured increase later as a means of discouraging those who would otherwise enter teaching in much larger numbers for the purpose of filling in merely a year or two and bringing to the work little in the way of serious professional interest.

Increments also are made in order to bring the salary of the maturing teacher up to a level befitting the interest of a professional adult. It is not reasonable to overlook or disparage the factor of increasing needs as the teacher advances in age. Either he will have additional people dependent upon him during the course of time, or his own maturing interests will call for larger expenditures for their realization. He also will need a certain surplus to put aside for his old age. We employ the young person for a small amount of money by holding out to him the hope of a larger salary; he is willing to work for a time on the basis of this expectation; but there comes a time when he realizes that life is short, that time is fleeting, and that the plans which he has dreamed of for many years must begin to be fulfilled if ever. It is then that a higher salary, reached through successive increments, becomes necessary if he is to remain happily and well adjusted. I believe that in no small sense the changing psychology of the individual toward the realization of his own life purposes is a significant factor in justifying the increments which we give.¹⁸

The principal questions involved in the planning of automatic increments relate to the number of such increases to be granted and to their size. If these increments are to help in stabilizing the profession and in retaining teachers of ability, they must be large enough to be significant in the teacher's budget and they must be continued over a relatively long period of time. On the

¹⁸ Douglas E. Scates, *op. cit.*, pp. 337-338.

other hand, if they are made too large or continued too long, they will result in larger increases in the salary budget than the community can afford. Theoretically, there are arguments for continuing the automatic increases throughout the entire service of the teacher. In actual practice, however, administrators have tended to limit the number to a relatively short period, usually from seven to fifteen years. This is done because of the necessity for placing a definite limit on expenditures for salaries, and because most superintendents believe that a teacher improves but little as a result of experience after the first few years. Generally speaking, automatic increments should be continued at least as long as experience results in significant increases in efficiency. Where the budget will permit they should probably be continued beyond this minimum period in order to encourage mature and capable teachers to remain in the work. Such increments should probably be small during the first year or two and largest during the years when experience is adding most to teaching efficiency.

Increments for Advanced Preparation

Salary increases for advanced preparation are granted on the theory that additional study will increase the efficiency of the teacher. That this is not always the case is obvious. That it should be the case is equally clear. If advanced study in institutions of higher learning will not help the teacher to improve his work, there is something seriously wrong with the teacher, the institution, or both. The principal difficulty has been that salary increments have too frequently been granted for advanced work without regard to the nature or quality of the courses taken. As a result the plan has frequently degenerated into a senseless accumulation of credit for the purpose of gaining increases in salary. If a board of education approves a salary schedule involving increments for additional training, it does so with the understanding that the community is to receive a dividend in the form of better teaching. It is not interested in paying teachers merely to amass credits and to earn additional degrees.

The responsibility for the effective operation of a schedule of

this type rests with the teacher-training institution, the school administrator, and the teacher. The institution of higher learning is responsible for seeing that its curricula and courses really contribute to teaching efficiency, and the administrator who institutes a plan of this kind is obligated to see that it is properly supervised. Finally, the teacher must assume a personal responsibility for the success of the schedule. It is his business to plan his advanced study in such a way that it will contribute most to the work at hand and to his future success in the profession.

Many schedules adopted in recent years include definite rules respecting increments for training. Such rules usually provide that all advanced work be supervised by the superintendent or someone to whom he may delegate the task; that all courses either have a direct bearing on the work of the teacher or lend themselves to his general professional growth; that a proper balance be maintained between academic and professional work; and that all advanced study be done at approved institutions. In addition, the rules frequently set a limit on the amount of study that may be attempted while the teacher is serving in a full-time position.

Increments for Merit

In theory at least, salary increments should be granted only for measured improvement in teaching efficiency. In other words, teachers should be paid, not on the basis of preparation and experience, which are at best only indirect measures of teaching ability, but instead on actual merit. The difficulty in this method is that we have not yet devised means of measuring teaching efficiency that are satisfactory to all concerned. Consequently, administrators have been hesitant about attempting evaluations of the teacher's work for the purpose of salary scheduling. Recognizing that injustices frequently result when salary increments are based only on preparation and experience, they have preferred, nevertheless, to construct salary schedules on these two tangible factors rather than risk the direct evaluation of teaching efficiency by means of rating scales, score cards, and similar devices. If ease of administration is the major ob-

jective in salary scheduling, a plan that automatically determines salaries on the basis of preparation and experience only is, no doubt, the best solution to a difficult problem. Certainly, it represents the "path of least resistance." On the other hand, if the administrator is really seeking the most equitable distribution of salaries and is willing to face certain issues that such a distribution involves, he will insist on a more flexible schedule and one that in some measure at least will reward directly the teacher of exceptional ability.

At present a number of city school systems are experimenting with schedules that are based in part on direct measures of merit. In general, these experiments have followed three procedures. One device is to base the schedule primarily on experience and preparation, but to provide in the rules governing it that the superintendent may at his discretion move a teacher forward one or more steps in the experience schedule when there is evidence of superior teaching ability. If he deems it advisable, he may also withhold the automatic increase for experience. This interruption of the increments may be for one year or for any period the superintendent elects, and it is interpreted to mean that the teacher is not doing satisfactory work and that the board cannot be justified in paying for experience that is apparently profiting the system little or not at all. The implication is that, should the teacher improve in efficiency, the ruling will be withdrawn and the teacher allowed to proceed on the schedule, but should he not show the expected improvement dismissal is likely to follow.

A similar principle is followed in schedules that provide extra compensation concurrent with automatic increments. For a teacher to receive this type of merit reward, evidence must be presented showing that he is making a superior contribution in the form of classroom teaching, curriculum study, research, community service, or the like. This additional compensation is usually paid for a term of one year and is continued beyond that period of time so long as the teacher receives merit rating. Schedules of this character occasionally contain different classes of merit rating with restrictions on the percentage of teachers

who may be eligible at any one time. If we assume a five-class schedule, no more than 3 per cent of the teachers may be eligible for the first class in which \$1,000 extra compensation is paid, let us say. On the other hand, 15 per cent may be eligible in the last class where \$200 payments are provided. The incentives for superior work are strong when this type of schedule is operated fairly.

The third device is a provision for special merit ratings which make possible salary increments for a selected group of teachers above those provided for in the regular schedule. Under this plan any teacher who has reached the limit of the experience-preparation schedule for his type of work may be advanced successively through a series of merit levels, each of which carries an extra increment in pay. Whether or not a teacher is to be given a special merit rating is determined by the administrative and supervisory staffs on the basis of such measures of teaching efficiency as they may have devised.

The Teacher and Salary Scheduling

It might be argued that the technical aspects of salary scheduling are of concern only to school administrators and that there is little reason, therefore, for asking the prospective teacher to devote time to the study of such problems. Careful consideration of the question indicates that this is not the case. Although school boards and superintendents pay salaries, teachers receive them and must live on them. Not only does the teacher have a right to participate in the scheduling of salaries, but he must do so if his interests are to be safeguarded. Better superintendents of schools recognize both the right and the obligation of teachers in this connection and seek their assistance when salary schedules are being formulated. Teacher participation in administration is everywhere becoming more common, and in no phase of school management is it playing a more prominent part than in salary scheduling. It is probably not too much to expect that a few more years will see virtually every school system of any size paying its teachers on the basis of a salary schedule that they themselves have helped to prepare.

RELATED READINGS

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Davis, Hazel, "Teachers' Salaries," *Review of Educational Research*, 13:276-284. June, 1943.

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———, "Interest Grows in the Single Salary Schedule," *American School Board Journal*, 109:31-33. June, 1944.

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One of the biennial survey reports on salaries paid in city school systems which the Research Division has conducted regularly since 1922. Gives detailed statistics on trends in salaries, their range and distribution, comparative differences between positions and levels, and the status of salary scheduling in city-school systems.

Spears, Harold, "Some Principles and Problems in Determining a Salary Policy," *American School Board Journal*, 110:41-43. March, 1945; 32-33, 76. April, 1945.

A fine treatment of several basic principles that enter into a consideration of salary schedule construction.

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The Teacher Looks at Personnel Administration, Research Bulletin, Vol. XXIII, No. 4. Washington: Research Division, National Education Association, December, 1945.

PROBLEMS OF TEACHERS

Describes the relationship between local practice and teacher opinion on selected school issues, including salary.

The White House Conference on Rural Education, Washington: National Education Association, 1945.

For the person planning to teach in a rural school, this report contains much material of a helpful nature.

Chapter 8

WELFARE AND SECURITY

ANY PROSPECTIVE teacher who is critically concerned with the problems peculiar to education will examine not only the requirements and preparation essential to teaching and the salary he may expect in return for his services but also the various factors that bear directly upon his future welfare and security. An inventory of the factors involving teacher welfare and security shows that they include teaching load, health, provision for illness, sabbatical leave, turnover, tenure, and retirement.

THE TEACHING LOAD

The beginning teacher must realize that superintendents and principals continuously face the problem of operating schools as economically as is consistent with sound instructional practice. If administrators assign loads that are too heavy, teachers not only do poorer work but become dissatisfied and resentful. On the other hand, loads that are too light increase costs and tend to stifle drive and initiative. The old adage that "the less one has to do, the less one wants to do" applies to teaching as to any other field of work. The first problem of the administrator then is to discover how much work the teacher can and should do, and the second is to assign equitable teaching loads to the individual members of his staff. In order to accomplish these two purposes, he must find out what factors determine the teaching loads and, on the basis of these factors, set up measures that will permit him to evaluate these loads objectively and with a reasonable degree of accuracy.

In dealing with this problem, the administrator does not think of the load as involving only the teaching assignment. He

recognizes that the task of the modern teacher includes in addition a wide variety of activities essential to the effective functioning of the school system. Among these extra duties may be mentioned the clerical work involved in preparing tests, marking papers, keeping records, and making reports; the supervision of special projects and extracurricular activities; participation in administrative activities; preparation of curricula and courses of study; child counseling and guidance; and the supervision of home rooms and study halls. All such responsibilities are involved in the total load of the teacher and must be taken into consideration when an effort is made to measure and equate assignments.

The Elementary School

For the most part, the American elementary school is nondepartmentalized. In other words, it is organized in such a way that a teacher is responsible for teaching all subjects to a particular group of pupils and, with minor exceptions, spends the entire day with this group. Under such circumstances the chief variables in the teaching load are the number of pupils in the class, the length of the school day, and the grade taught.

Whether or not the last factor is really important is a debatable matter. Although the teacher in the upper elementary grades deals with more advanced subject matter and has more paper work in connection with it, he may be less burdened with the actual preparation of teaching materials so essential to the beginning grades. He is also in a more favored position because his pupils are better able to direct their own efforts. Although other differences might be noted between the work of an early elementary and a later elementary teacher, administrators have ignored grade level differences in equating load, with the exception of the kindergarten and first grade where a conscious attempt has been made to keep the group small, principally because of the need for individual attention in facilitating pupil adjustment to the school.

The length of the school day is also a relatively unimportant variable in the teaching load of the elementary teacher. With

the exception of the kindergarten and perhaps the first grade, all classes in the traditional elementary school are in session for the same length of time. Usually, no effort is made to adjust the loads of kindergarten and primary teachers in order to compensate for the shorter day. In some instances, however, such teachers are paid less because their teaching loads are considered lighter, and in other cases they are given additional assignments of work.

In general, it may be said that efforts toward adjustment of the teaching load in the elementary school are confined primarily to the regulation of class size.

Many city superintendents of schools have expressed the opinion that an elementary class of 40 pupils, a six-hour day, and the extra duties associated with this teaching assignment are not an excessive load. Even though such an opinion is debatable, there are reasons behind it which new teachers should understand. Primarily, the pressure for financial economy is the largest factor that has influenced superintendents to schedule large classes. Acting as agents of school boards, they are required to keep costs as low as possible. Whenever enrollments increase out of proportion to income, large classes have been created as a means of holding costs within the limits of the budget. At the same time, the scheduling of large classes has been justified by superintendents in the light of several research studies showing that there is little relationship between class size and pupil achievement as represented by test results.

In these research studies, small and large classes have been defined in various ways. In general, the smaller group has usually enrolled 20 or fewer pupils and the larger from 35 to 45. However, the large class in some experimental situations has enrolled as many as 60, 70, or even 100 pupils.

The results of these investigations of class size in relation to pupil achievement cannot be accepted without definite qualifications. On the basis of achievement tests in subject matter, the small classes offered little, if any, advantage over the large classes. This would seem to suggest that where good methods of drill are used, class size is not too significant a factor in this

kind of learning. But when attention is given to current considerations of growth in all aspects of childhood and youth, including social attitudes, habits of work, quality of critical thinking, healthful living, ability to get along with others, skill in group processes, the application of principles to life situations, the interpretation of information and many other specific aspects of living, the same generalizations respecting class size are untenable. Considerable research is needed before safe conclusions may be drawn about class size in relation to learning; any new research undertaken must deal with the total learning situation, not a narrow aspect of it.

The empirical findings of classroom teachers favor small classes as against large classes for several reasons. In a study involving almost 5,000 classes in both the elementary and secondary schools, teachers indicated that large classes created the following types of problems:

1. Inability to become acquainted with pupils and to give the individual help needed.
2. Crowding of room and inadequate facilities sufficient to impair the program.
3. Load of papers, clerical work, records, etc.
4. Problems of management, organization, control, discipline.
5. Extent of ability range.
6. Presence of problem pupils: retarded, poorly prepared, or handicapped.
7. Load of making preparations and plans, and devising teacher-made materials.¹

When asked in this same study what the maximum number of pupils was who could be taught advantageously in one class, the teachers had a definite answer. They regarded 30 pupils as an average-size class with the maximum placed at 35. This general recommendation was given by both the elementary and secondary teachers as is shown in Table 7. The table likewise

¹ *The Teacher Looks at Teacher Load*, p. 252. Research Bulletin, Vol. XVII, No. 5. Washington: Research Division, National Education Association, November 1939.

shows that over 80 per cent of the teachers in both groups did not believe that classes in excess of 34 pupils were feasible, and slightly more than 70 per cent of both groups would keep class size below 38 pupils. These teachers also indicated that size of classes could be increased slightly over their recommendations if retarded and problem pupils were placed in special classes, the range of pupil ability reduced, and extracurricular assignments made lighter.

TABLE 7
Teachers' Opinions on Class Size²

Number of Pupils	Percentage of elementary teachers suggesting each limitation as a		Percentage of secondary teachers suggesting each limitation as a	
	reasonable size	maximum size	reasonable size	maximum size
Less than 30.....	38.2	9.9	51.1	13.3
30-33.....	42.8	25.1	32.2	31.7
34-37.....	16.6	35.5	11.8	28.4
38-41.....	2.4	22.2	3.2	18.0
42-45.....	5.0	0.6	4.1
46-49.....	0.6	0.2	0.5
50 or more.....	1.7	0.8	4.0

But in spite of teachers' recommendations in favor of smaller classes administrators are inclined to look at instruction largely in terms of dollars and cents. They have not been convinced that teachers can produce better results with smaller groups, but they do know that small classes are expensive. Following the course of "practical" men, they have tended to operate larger classes in recent years with little regard for their effect upon instruction or the morale of teachers.

The Secondary School

Departmentalization and numerous extra activities associated with high school instruction make the problem of the teaching

² Adapted from *The Teacher Looks at Teacher Load*, p. 253.

assignment at this level more complex than it is in the elementary school. Consequently, most investigations of the teaching load have been concerned with the secondary school. Instead of depending almost wholly on the single measure of class size, as has been the practice in the elementary school, administrators have attempted to evaluate the high school teaching load on the basis of a variety of factors. This practice has been given its principal impetus by the regional accrediting associations of the country. These agencies, in their efforts to establish standards for the accreditation of secondary schools, have sought means for evaluating the teaching load in order to insure that teaching efficiency in recognized schools will not be endangered by excessive assignments of work. Their recommendations and requirements on the teaching load and a variety of other points such as the curriculum, the length of the school year, pupil load, teacher preparation, salaries, laboratories, and libraries are embodied in printed lists of standards which schools must meet in order to become eligible for membership.

In general, the accrediting agencies have attempted the evaluation of the teaching load by three different measures: (1) the number of periods taught, (2) the number of pupil-periods assigned per week, and (3) the pupil-teacher ratio of the school. With respect to the first of these measures, the standards generally specify that six periods per day, or a total of 30 periods per week, shall be the maximum. Five periods per day, or 25 periods per week, is the recommended load. In the interpretation of this standard, a double period in a laboratory or shop or two periods of study-hall supervision are regarded as the equivalent of one recitation period.

The number of pupil-periods, as a measure of teaching load, represents an effort to take into consideration not only the number of periods taught but also the number of pupils enrolled in the teacher's classes. A pupil-period may be defined as one pupil in instruction for one regular period. In other words, a class of 30 pupils taught five days a week represents a weekly load of 150 pupil periods. Following is an example of the calculation of a teaching load in terms of pupil-periods:

<i>Class</i>	<i>Enrollment</i>	<i>Class Periods</i>	<i>Periods in Laboratory</i>	<i>Pupil- Periods</i>
Mathematics 1.....	33	5	—	165
Mathematics 2.....	29	5	—	145
Occupations.....	34	3	—	102
Biology.....	28	3	4	140
Physics.....	23	3	4	115
General Science.....	36	5	—	180
Total Number of Pupil-Periods a Week.....				847

When this measure is employed, the maximum is usually placed at 750 pupil-periods a week. Such a load is the equivalent of five classes with an average enrollment of 30 pupils, each meeting five days a week. When classes are fairly uniform in size, this is perhaps the best single measure of the teaching load. But it does not work out satisfactorily in all cases. One teacher, for example, might have two classes with enrollments of 46 and 42 students while another has four classes with enrollments of 24, 18, 21, and 25. If all classes meet five times each week, the total load of each teacher is 440 pupil-periods. Yet nearly everyone would agree that the second teacher, with four classes to teach, has a heavier assignment than the first who has only two classes. Obviously, neither the number of periods nor the number of pupil-periods is an entirely satisfactory measure of teaching load.

The third measure sometimes employed by accrediting agencies is the pupil-teacher ratio of the school. As this measure gives a rough index of the total load of the teaching staff, but tells nothing of individual assignments, it is of minor importance to the teacher. Accrediting agencies usually specify that the teaching staff of a high school shall not be fewer than one full-time teacher for each 30 pupils. In determining this ratio, principals, librarians, and others who do part-time teaching are included as fractional teachers.

It will be observed that the three measures of teaching load commonly employed by accrediting agencies involve only two factors, the number of periods taught and the number of pupils enrolled. Although both of these are important, they do not alone or in combination give a complete picture of the teaching

load. A high degree of accuracy would require that several other factors be taken into consideration. The more important of these are the relative difficulty of the subject or subjects taught, the number of different fields in which the teacher is asked to work, the number of preparations, the extracurricular assignment, the length of class periods, and the amount of clerical work involved.

The importance of these factors in the teaching load is difficult to measure, and the tendency in practice has been to ignore them or at best to evaluate them subjectively. However, serious efforts have been made to apply formulas which would take into account the number of classes, the number of pupils, and several of the more intangible factors. The application of these formulas has not been accepted by many secondary schools as a satisfactory method of equating load. Some teachers argue that one subject is no more difficult to teach than another, since superior teaching in any field requires as much time as the teacher can give to his work. They point out that no one can say whether duplicate sections of the same class require one or two preparations, or how much credit should be assigned for extracurricular activities, committee membership, or special services conducted by the teacher. The conclusion seems current that desirable considerations of load are best attained when teachers and administrators undertake co-operatively to work out their own problem in terms of the local situation.

It is generally recognized today that an assignment of 30 class periods or 750 pupil-periods per week approximates the maximum load that the typical high school teacher can carry without endangering instructional efficiency, but such standards are not universally accepted nor are they enforced in all schools. Even the accrediting associations placed less emphasis on these standards during the depression when economy was of paramount importance.

It is the business of the teacher to know current standards and to be familiar with current practices in the administration of the teaching load in order that he may participate intelligently in ef-

forts to bring about an equitable distribution of work. On the other hand, no teacher should ever take the attitude that a specific assignment of classes and extra duties necessarily sets the limits of the demands that may be made on his time. Teaching is professional work and, as such, does not lend itself to "clock punching" or other formal procedures. In any school or school system there is a certain amount of work to be done in order that the educational program may go forward. Some of this work is not represented in teaching assignments and, therefore, cannot be allotted to particular teachers. Nevertheless, it represents a responsibility of the administrative and teaching staffs that cannot be evaded. Teachers are within their rights in insisting on reasonable assignments of work and on an equitable distribution of teaching loads. At the same time, they must be willing and ready to lend assistance in whatever tasks are essential to the welfare of the school.

HEALTH

Besides a fair and reasonable load, effective teaching demands mental poise, physical stamina, and large reserves of nervous energy. Poor health on the part of the teacher stands not only as a deterrent to effective learning but, in cases of contagion, may also represent a serious menace to the children with whom the teacher is associated. Probably in no type of work is there less excuse for the employment or retention in service of the physically unfit. The child has a right to expect that his teacher be an exemplification of the finest in physical and mental health, and his parents pay for the type of service that can be rendered only by vigorous, clear-minded men and women.

In spite of the importance of the problem, little has been accomplished as yet in the direction of studying and promoting health conditions among teachers. As a general rule, teachers are employed by boards of education and administrators with no more knowledge of their physical conditions than can be obtained from ordinary observation, and in other than extreme cases they are usually retained in their positions irrespective of the state of their

health. A thorough examination of a cross section of the teaching profession would probably show that the majority are in relatively good health, owing principally to the fact that good health is a normal characteristic of young men and women of the nation. On the other hand, many cases of serious disability would unquestionably be revealed. There would be a few lacking the general bodily vigor necessary to good teaching, others would have vision so defective as to make efficient instruction impossible, some would be partially deaf, others would be lacking in mental or emotional stability, some would be affected with chronic disorders that materially lower their efficiency, and a few would most certainly be found potentially or actually tubercular.

Here and there progressive superintendents and others interested in the problem have recognized the importance of good health among teachers and have taken steps to improve existing conditions. Of the 1,795 cities studied in 1940-1941 with regard to health provisions for teachers, 25 per cent required some form of physical examination as a condition of employment. In 63 per cent of the cities over 100,000 in population all beginning teachers had to pass a physical examination. This examination was given in 35 per cent of these cities by physicians employed or approved by the board of education, and in 26 per cent of the cities by any licensed physician.³ It was also found that 16 per cent of the 1,795 cities provided physical examinations for teachers in service, and in 13 per cent of the school systems teachers were permitted to receive free advisory services from school physicians.⁴ A forward step was made in Pennsylvania when the 1946 legislature enacted a school health law requiring all teachers as well as children to undergo a thorough physical examination every two years.

³ *Teacher Personnel Procedures: Selection and Appointment*, p. 66. Research Bulletin, Vol. XX, No. 2. Washington: Research Division, National Education Association, March, 1942.

⁴ *Teacher Personnel Procedures: Employment Conditions in Service*, p. 99. Research Bulletin Vol. XX, No. 3. Washington: Research Division, National Education Association, May, 1942.

Health Conditions

Observation would indicate that the teacher is faced with more than average health hazards, particularly if engaged in elementary work. For several months each year he is closely confined with a large number of children, some of whom, at almost all times, are suffering from colds, influenza, or one of a variety of children's diseases. Classrooms are frequently poorly ventilated and inadequately lighted. Heating systems are often difficult to control, and, as a result, temperatures are too low, too high, or fluctuate widely. Books handled by dozens of children, dust, bad water, and faulty plumbing are all sources of contagion that threaten the health of the teacher. Large classes, heavy teaching loads, problems of control, and the general routine of teaching all make heavy demands on nervous energy, leaving the teacher with no zest for exercise or other forms of recreation at the close of the day. Yet, in spite of all these apparent hazards, there is little evidence to indicate that teachers as a group suffer more from poor health than any other similar section of the population. This condition might be explained by the fact that the health hazards mentioned above are more apparent than real. However, a better explanation would seem to be that teachers as a group are above the average in intelligence and training and that they care for their health better than the average person.

Most of the evidence thus far available concerning health conditions among teachers has been obtained from studies of teachers' absences. Such investigations, though valuable, are inadequate in that they deal only with those disorders that are serious enough to keep the teacher from work, neglecting for the most part lesser disabilities which may affect materially the quality of the instruction while permitting the teacher to continue in charge of his work. Furthermore, in such studies the causes of absence listed are those reported by the teachers. In most cases such reports are probably reliable, but there are unquestionably some instances where the teacher does not know the real cause or na-

ture of his illness and others where he chooses not to reveal the real reason for his absence. Some information has been obtained from medical examinations in recent years, but until such examinations become far more extensive our knowledge of health conditions among teachers will be relatively unreliable.

Administrative Practices

As was pointed out above, some school systems have initiated definite practices designed to improve health conditions among teachers. Greatest reliance has been placed upon health examinations before employment and later periodic examinations to determine whether or not the teacher has contracted a disease or other disability that would seriously reduce his teaching efficiency or make him a menace to the health of the children with whom he is associated. Provisions have also been made for a special nursing service in a few places, for the improvement of living conditions because of their relationship to physical and mental health, for social and recreational programs during and after school hours, and for the effective regulation of sick leave. Some attention has likewise been given to guidance in health habits, the improvement of the classroom environment, and the factors that seriously impair the mental outlook of the teacher toward his work. Although these are promising signs of a growing recognition by administrators of the place and importance of health in teaching efficiency, they are not general enough yet to strike a note of optimism; too many administrators are prone to bury themselves in the details of running a school without seeing the vital importance of health as a part of personnel policy.

It must be remembered that the entire responsibility for the improvement of the teacher's health cannot be left with the administrator. The teacher, himself, must co-operate to the fullest extent. If there were no consequences other than those suffered by the teacher, he might be considered within his rights in insisting that his health is a personal matter and not the business of a superintendent or board of education. It happens, however, that both the educational and physical welfare of the child are

involved. Therefore, it becomes a professional responsibility of the teacher to do all that he can to promote his own health, and to co-operate at all times with the administration in its efforts to improve the mental and physical tone of the teaching staff.

SICK LEAVE

Illness is not the only compelling reason for teachers' absences from their work. Others that would be considered legitimate in almost any school system are death in the immediate family, professional visits to other schools, attendance at educational meetings, and religious holidays. Although it is a teacher's responsibility to see that his absences are reduced to a minimum consistent with efficient instruction, there will be occasions when it is impossible or highly undesirable for him to be present at school. Such occasions bring about two important administrative problems with which the teacher should be at least partially familiar. The first of these problems relates to the provision of substitute service, and the second to the payment of the salary when the teacher is absent from duty.

Substitute Service

In some school systems it is still the practice for teachers to employ their own substitutes and to arrange for their compensation. This procedure is generally condemned on the grounds that it does not insure effective instruction during the absence of the regular teacher. It is pointed out that the plan employed should insure that the substitute will be secured on time and that he will be able to take over the responsibilities of the regular teacher with as little loss to the pupils and as little extra work to the regular teacher as possible.

The tendency today is for the full responsibility for the provision of substitute service to be assigned to the superintendent of schools or to some member of his administrative staff to whom he may delegate the work. A list of qualified substitutes is prepared and kept in readiness for such emergencies as may arise. It will contain the names of teachers qualified to handle various types of assignments, and in larger cities will include residents of

several areas in order that the substitutes may be placed on the job with the least possible loss of time. When the teacher finds it necessary to be absent from his work, he is expected to notify his principal immediately. The principal in turn notifies the superintendent's office or other department responsible for substitute service. With the list of substitutes at hand, the superintendent or one of his assistants selects a teacher who is qualified to do the work and can take over the assignment immediately. The regular teacher has nothing to do with either the selection or the pay of the substitute. His primary responsibility is to see that his absence is anticipated as far in advance as possible, and that his records and plans are always in such condition as to facilitate as much as possible the work of the substitute. In most cases substitute teachers are employed on a part-time basis, provision being made for a daily wage scale. In a few large cities, however, a limited number of substitutes are appointed on a full-time basis in recognition of the fact that there will be enough substitute work to justify continuous employment.

Pay During Absence

Provisions for sick leave vary a great deal among school systems. In many rural communities where a definite policy is lacking, the absent teacher is frequently called upon to furnish his own substitute. In such cases the only pay received by the teacher is the difference between his regular salary and the amount for which the substitute can be employed. Most city school systems, on the other hand, have regulations that provide for the employment of the substitute and the payment of the absent teacher's salary for a limited period of time when the absence is due to certain specified causes.

In most cases when pay is granted during absence, the teacher is given the full salary. However, there are a few cities that follow the practice of paying only a specified proportion of the regular salary. The length of time for which the salary will be paid in absence varies a great deal among cities and in terms of the cause of the absence. For personal illness the most common practice is to grant ten days' absence, although there are many

cities that are more generous than this and likewise many that pay for a shorter period. Some cities grant longer leaves with only part pay, and some increase the period with the length of service. When the cause of absence is a death in the immediate family, the leave may be included in the total allowance for sickness or a special regulation may be adopted. In the latter case, the number of days most commonly allowed is three or five.

Special Plans

There are two unfortunate circumstances associated with the payment of teachers' salaries during absence. One of these is the fact that few school systems can afford to make provisions for an extended illness. Consequently, the teacher is often left without means of support while burdened with additional expenses for medical and hospital care. The second is the fact that some teachers will take advantage of sick leave regulations and remain away from work for the maximum number of days for which pay is granted whether or not there is any good excuse for this absence. It hardly seems possible that a teacher in whom there exists a trace of professional spirit could thus take advantage of a board of education that is striving sincerely to better conditions for a teaching staff, and yet there is evidence to indicate that this does occur in some instances when safeguards have not been established. In view of such conditions, it is little wonder that boards of education sometimes show slight interest in plans for improving the status of teachers.

In order to keep such leave regulations in force to protect teachers who deserve protection, it has frequently been necessary to devise plans that will prevent malingering on the part of a few. One device is to require a signed statement from the teacher showing the cause of absence. A second practice is to accept a statement from the principal; and a third, to require a doctor's certificate if the absences extend beyond a specified number.

More significant than any of these devices is the cumulative plan, which not only tends to prevent malingering but at the

same time makes provision for extended periods of illness that cannot be covered by the ordinary sick leave. Under the cumulative plan a certain number of days is granted each year for disability. If the teacher does not use all the days allowed, those remaining are carried over to the next year. This process continues until the teacher has accumulated a specified maximum number of days. After several years with few or no absences the teacher will have enough days to his credit to enable him to go through an extended illness without loss of pay.

Another approach to the problem of reducing malingering on the part of teachers is the so-called bonus plan. Under this arrangement, the teacher is guaranteed a certain number of days' leave with pay, with the understanding that all days not used will be paid for in the form of a salary bonus at the end of the year. The details of such a plan are clearly described in the following quotation.

We accept ten days of absence on the teacher's word regarding the cause of his absence. We do not require a doctor's certificate because no teacher will remain out longer than her physical condition requires, since each day of absence caused by disability means a loss of \$5.00 to her.

Our bonus system gives to each regular teacher the sum of \$50.00 at the close of the school year for perfect attendance, three days being allowed at all times with no deduction on account of a death in the immediate family. For each day of absence on account of disability, the teacher loses \$5.00 from this \$50.00 bonus, although her regular salary goes on just the same; thus, if a teacher is absent for ten days on account of disability she has exhausted her bonus of \$50.00. She would receive her full salary for the ten days so lost, but following this period per-diem deductions are made from the monthly salary. Should a teacher be absent five days during the school year, she would have no regular salary deduction, but would receive only \$25.00 at the end of the school year. Our practice has been to include whatever bonus is due the teacher in the salary for the last month.⁵

⁵ Ward G. Reeder, *The Fundamentals of Public School Administration*, p. 148. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1930. (By permission of the publishers.)

The cumulative and bonus plans have certain important advantages over the ordinary sick leave arrangement, but there is the danger that either system will encourage teachers to continue at work when they should be at home. When this occurs the health of the teacher is jeopardized and teaching efficiency is reduced. Moreover, there arises the possibility that the teacher may continue with his work while suffering from a contagious disease and thereby endanger the health of the pupils with whom he is associated. However, to the extent to which these plans have developed to prevent malingering, they are an indictment of the teaching profession. Teachers should be ethical enough to refrain from taking unfair advantage of a sick leave plan when the board of education is sufficiently progressive to appropriate money for it.

SABBATICAL LEAVE

The problem of keeping teachers in service up to their peak of efficiency has taxed the resourcefulness of school officials for many years. Large sums of money have been appropriated for this purpose and used for the support of various supervisory plans to improve the competencies of teachers. Among such plans have been special-educational clinics, correspondence studies, summer workshops, interschool visitations, salary increments for advanced educational study, demonstration teaching, and the like. Sabbatical leave has occupied a prominent place in these plans for increasing the instructional efficiency of the classroom teacher.

Sabbatical leave, as the phrase is used here, refers to any legal plan approved by a school system or permitted under state law whereby a teacher may be granted a leave of absence for a semester or a school year for the purpose of study, travel, or health. Although the word *sabbatical* implies that the leave shall come during the seventh year of service, this practice by no means prevails. In some cities the period of service, prior to application for leave, may be as short as three years or as long as 15 years. Usually a period of seven to ten years of service is required before a teacher is eligible for leave.

Even though some boards of education and superintendents

doubt the value of sabbatical leave as a means for increasing teacher efficiency, provisions for it are made in many school systems. The National Education Association reported that 518 or 43 per cent of 1,211 cities studied grant leaves of absence to teachers for further study.⁶ Apparently school officials feel sabbatical leave yields returns in the form of better teaching and higher cultural and professional standards; otherwise leave plans would not be found in so large a percentage of school systems.

In the majority of cities having sabbatical leave plans teachers receive no compensation or salary during the time they are out of school. Full salary is granted in relatively few cities, half salary is provided in about 3 per cent of the cities, and full salary less the pay of substitutes in approximately 15 per cent of the systems where extended leaves of absence are a definite policy.⁷

The most extensive provision for sabbatical leave is found in Pennsylvania. A statute enacted there in 1937 provides that any teacher who has taught in the public schools of the commonwealth for ten years, at least five of these years being consecutive in the granting district, is entitled to a leave of absence for restoration of health, study, or travel, or at the discretion of the board of school directors for any other purpose. The leave may be taken for a half or a full school year or for two years, at the option of the teacher. The teacher who elects a sabbatical leave must agree to return to the granting district for at least one year following the period of the leave.

The laws provide further that the person on leave shall receive the difference between his regular salary and the salary paid to any substitute, on the condition, however, that he shall not receive more than \$1,600 for a full year, and not more than \$800 for a half school year.

In a study of the Pennsylvania sabbatical leave law, Ellis found that, out of 63,157 teachers in the public schools of the state, 40,983 met the qualifying requirements of the act. But, since the act permits only 10 per cent of those eligible to take leave

⁶ *Teacher Personnel Procedures: Employment Conditions in Service*, p. 93. Research Bulletin, Vol. XX, No. 3. Washington: Research Division, National Education Association, May, 1942.

⁷ *Ibid.*

at one time, the number who were eligible amounted to 4,098. Of this number, 234 teachers applied for and were granted leaves for all or part of the school year 1940-1941. This was fewer than 1 per cent of those teachers who were eligible. In the opinion of administrators, teachers did not take advantage of their right to go on leave because of the financial limitations of the law.⁸

In summarizing his findings on the operation of the act, Ellis pointed out that (1) the most noticeable effect of leave was the improvement of general teaching efficiency; (2) teachers felt they had greater self-confidence after their return to classrooms following the leave; (3) teachers benefited more from a two-semester leave than they did from a one-semester leave when the purpose of the leave was travel or study; and (4) no noticeable effect was noted in improvement in efficiency because of the age of the teacher.

Outside of Pennsylvania and California—where boards of education are permitted by statute to grant leaves of absence for study or travel—sabbatical leave plans are matters of local school control. But, where only 43 per cent of the city school systems in 1930-1931 reported that extended leaves of absence were granted for professional improvement, 71 per cent of the cities reported in 1940-1941 that leaves of absence for professional improvement were provided, and 21 per cent of these cities paid some salary during the absence.⁹

TURNOVER

Another consideration of importance to the beginning teacher is that of turnover. He must decide whether employment in a particular school system may be maintained for a relatively long period of time under conditions favorable both to himself and to the school system. When favorable conditions exist, the teacher has a sense of security and a feeling of protection against unfair individuals and vested interest groups. A beginning

⁸ J. Leslie Ellis, *An Evaluation of Sabbatical Leave in Pennsylvania*, pp. 118-19. Philadelphia: Stephenson Brothers, 1945.

⁹ *Teacher Personnel Procedures: Employment Conditions in Service*, p. 94.

teacher would do well to ascertain the rate of turnover in a school system he is considering for employment. If the percentage of teachers who leave annually or who are discharged each year is high, the conclusion may be drawn safely that working conditions in that system are unsatisfactory and should be avoided. It becomes important, therefore, for the beginning teacher to know about the rate of turnover in a school system where employment opportunities are available.

Extent of Turnover

In approaching the problem of teacher turnover, it might be advisable to inquire first about the length of service which is common to teachers in various-sized communities. Using 1940 as a base year—in view of the unprecedented turnover caused by withdrawals for military service and employment in war industries—the research data show that (1) in open-country, one-teacher schools the average teacher had taught about five years; (2) in two-or-more-teacher schools in the open country, about seven years; (3) in communities under 2,500 population, also about seven years; (4) in cities with populations between 2,500 and 5,000, slightly more than nine years; and, (5) in communities over 100,000 population, 16 years, with the median for all urban teachers at 14 years.¹⁰ It is apparent from these findings that the length of service of teachers varies almost directly with the size of the community in which they are employed.

An examination of the same data with respect to the experience level of teachers in different units of the school system reveals that in all communities with populations above 2,500 (1) kindergarten teachers averaged slightly higher than 13 years; (2) elementary teachers, approximately 14½ years; (3) junior high school teachers, 13 years; and (4) senior high school teachers, about 13½ years. More than half of these teachers had taught in two or more school systems, and almost one tenth of them had held five or more different teaching positions.¹¹

¹⁰ *The Status of the Teaching Profession*, p. 59. Research Bulletin, Vol. XVIII, No. 2. Washington: Research Division, National Education Association, March, 1940.

¹¹ *Ibid.*

Studies of this kind make it clear that teaching is far from being a life-career profession and that many teachers either drop out of the profession each year or else change from one teaching position to another. Material available on the turnover of elementary teachers shows that one out of every five changed his position each year, and, in rural schools, two out of every five teachers were new to their positions each year. On the other hand, the extent of turnover in cities above 100,000 population was only one out of every 20 elementary school teachers.¹² If data were available for teacher turnover in secondary schools, they would probably show a lower rate of turnover than is characteristically the case among teachers in the elementary school.

Causes of Turnover

The rather alarming rate of turnover associated with the teaching profession calls for an explanation of the causes. It must be remembered, however, that in reviewing the causes, a distinction must be made between complete withdrawal from the profession and changing from one teaching position to another; both are considered in any discussion of teacher turnover.

Those who withdraw completely from teaching usually do so for reasons of marriage—perhaps the highest single factor; ill health; home conditions necessitating full-time attention; general dissatisfaction with teaching; the desire to enter another type of work largely for the financial attractions offered; failure on the job in controlling pupils, making a satisfactory adjustment, poor teaching ability, emotional instability, and the like; maternity; retirement; and death.

Those who change from one teaching position to another are generally motivated by (1) opportunities for promotion that include higher salary or the opportunity for salary increases, lower living costs, a reduced teaching load, better chances for professional improvement, greater security, more desirable living conditions, and school facilities that contribute to instructional efficiency; (2) desire to teach near home, dislike or disagreement with administrative policies and personnel, failure to receive a

¹² *Ibid.*

salary increase, desire to live in a larger community, a change in administrative personnel, inability or unwillingness to meet higher professional standards, desire for new social contacts, desire to be with friends or members of the family, and dissatisfaction with the social and political customs of the community; and (3) dismissal because of inefficiency, insubordination, misconduct, a reduction in staff personnel, and unfair personal and political practices—a condition that undermines security and brings about a low state of morale among teachers.

Significance of Turnover

Industry has for many years recognized the importance of keeping turnover of employees at a minimum. Extensive studies have demonstrated that both increased economy and increased efficiency result from such a policy. Although the educational product is largely an intangible one and in many important respects still unmeasurable, there can be little doubt that there is a close relationship between stability in the teaching profession and the efficiency of the educational system.

If experience on the part of the teacher contributes in general to increased efficiency in the classroom, and there can be little doubt that it does, particularly for the first few years, a large per cent of turnover is certain to produce a poorer educational product than would result if the teaching staff remained relatively stable. A high percentage of withdrawals from the profession or any other condition that makes necessary the employment of relatively large numbers of inexperienced teachers each year represents, then, an undesirable situation. A constantly shifting teaching personnel also makes it extremely difficult to place teaching on a truly professional basis. With the average teaching experience not exceeding six or eight years, it is hardly to be expected that there will appear in teaching the same professional consciousness that is found among those occupations whose members rarely withdraw from service until old age compels their retirement. This lack of a professional attitude on the part of individual members of the teaching profession, and the general failure of the group to unite in their efforts to im-

prove conditions, have been the principal causes of our apparent impotence when facing the taxpayer, the legislator, and the politician. Youth, vigor, and enthusiasm are needed in the teaching profession, but not at the sacrifice of maturity of judgment, experience, and professional loyalty.

The movement of teachers within the profession likewise has certain decided disadvantages. Each time that a teacher finds himself in a new position, he is called upon to make certain adjustments to the school, the administrative organization, and the community. With respect to the first two, the adjustments may be made rather rapidly and the teacher may be working at his highest level of efficiency in a relatively short time. Even then there is almost always some loss of efficiency that would not have occurred had the teacher not been new to the position. The adjustment to the community is a more difficult matter. Frequently, a teacher must spend months in a locality before he is capable of making the kind of contribution that a superior teacher is expected to make. A continuous shifting of the teaching personnel makes the teacher's adjustment to the community difficult or impossible even when the teacher himself is desirous of fulfilling all of his obligations. The difficulty is often increased by the fact that the teacher, viewing his position as only a temporary one, will make little or no effort to contribute more to the school and the community than the regular routine of classroom teaching.

Reduction of Turnover

Turnover in the teaching profession may be classified in three ways, from the standpoint of improving the situation. First, a certain proportion of the turnover results from conditions that we do not desire to see changed. For example, we would not want to eliminate deserved promotions for the sake of reducing turnover. We do not wish to prevent a teacher from voluntarily changing positions if the change results in improved conditions for the teacher and more effective instruction. Neither would we discourage leaves of absence for professional study or travel. Finally, there is no reason for wanting to avoid justifi-

able dismissal in the teaching profession. Inefficiency, insubordination, and immorality cannot be tolerated in the educational system. There have been in the past and still are too few dismissals of incompetent teachers and of teachers who for other just causes should not be allowed to continue in the positions they hold.

A second type of turnover in the classification under consideration is that resulting from causes which are largely or wholly beyond our power to eliminate, even though we desire to do so. Marriages will continue to be made regardless of their effect on turnover in the teaching profession. The amount of turnover resulting from this cause could be reduced some by increasing the proportion of men in the profession and by the elimination of board regulations against the married woman teacher. However, as long as women continue to constitute the great majority of elementary and secondary teachers, marriage will continue to be one of the principal causes of withdrawals from the profession and one that we can combat with little success. Ill health, home conditions that force the teacher to give up employment, old-age retirement, and death are other causes of withdrawal that belong in this same category.

A third type of turnover is that which results from causes that are avoidable and which must be eliminated, if teaching is to be elevated to the desired professional level and if the work of the school is to become increasingly effective. Withdrawals due to a general dissatisfaction with conditions in the profession and to a desire to enter another field of work, the constant migration of superior teachers from rural to urban communities, voluntary changes of position for unimportant or imaginary reasons, and unjustified dismissals are causes that belong in this classification. It is toward the eradication of these conditions that the profession must direct its efforts if turnover is to be materially reduced. Two approaches are apparently possible, one of which may be described as an indirect method and another as a direct method.

By the indirect approach to the problem is meant the general improvement of conditions in the profession which tend to encourage short tenure and large amounts of turnover. An in-

crease in the proportion of men in teaching and less discrimination against the married woman teacher are indirect means that might be employed to reduce the withdrawals made necessary by marriages. Increased salaries, better working conditions, higher requirements for entrance to the profession, the improvement of the general status of the rural teacher, and more able leadership on boards of education and in administrative positions are objectives that, if achieved, would have as a by-product a material improvement in tenure conditions.

Particularly urgent are our needs for increased salaries, improved working conditions, and higher requirements for entrance to teaching. Large amounts of turnover are found among those young men and women, particularly the former, who enter teaching temporarily in order to earn funds with which to finance their preparation in some other vocation. Among such individuals a sincere interest in teaching is customarily lacking and their preparation is usually the minimum that the laws of the state will permit. Ordinarily, they will accept any type of position that is offered them regardless of the degree to which their training fits them for the work. However, these young men and women are not the ones to be criticized for this condition. Some of them are eminently successful and remain in educational work in spite of their avowed intention to teach for a limited time only. In any case, they can hardly be blamed for taking advantage of the situation, provided they give their best to the work as long as they are engaged in it. The fault is with the system that permits such a practice.

Higher salaries and improved working conditions will help materially, since they will encourage to remain in the field successful people who might otherwise be attracted to other fields of endeavor. However, the greatest need is for requirements for entrance to the profession that will keep out the transient and insure that each individual that assumes a teaching position is prepared for the work he is undertaking. Young men and women will cease using teaching as a steppingstone to other types of work whenever the certification requirements are comparable to those employed in other professions. No young man is going

to teach school in order to prepare for law when the requirements for teaching are as high and as specific as those required for practicing law. Neither will those engaged in business, industry, and numerous other types of work rush into the teaching field in times of economic stress, if the laws of the state are such that they cannot secure certificates.

The direct approach to the problems of tenure and turnover is through legislation relating to teachers' contracts and dismissal. The plan most frequently followed in the employment of teachers throughout the United States is still the "annual contract" plan. Where this practice prevails, the teacher is given a contract for a single school year and at the close of the term may be retained or dismissed at the will of employing officials. Naturally, such a practice opens the way to many unjust dismissals on the part of boards of education or the occasional unscrupulous superintendent. Conditions are particularly bad in rural areas where the superintendent has little or no authority in the placement or dismissal of teachers. Here boards of education or trustees have full authority and in hundreds of cases annually teachers are dismissed for reasons wholly unrelated to the effectiveness of their work.

The amount of turnover resulting directly from such practices is large, and the indirect consequences are probably of equal importance. The capable teacher, even if he can himself avoid dismissal, will not remain long in a school system where such conditions prevail. The kind of teacher that a community of this type needs is the kind that will not continue to work where the ethics of the profession are completely disregarded. Either he will move on to a community where teachers are employed and dismissed only on the basis of the needs of the school or he will leave the profession entirely. The results are lack of stability in the profession, unrest and dissatisfaction on the part of the individual teacher, and ineffective instruction for pupils.

Actually there are few, if any, good reasons why teachers should be re-employed annually. In other types of work, appointments are made for indefinite periods of time with the general understanding between employer and employee that the

latter will continue to hold the position as long as he performs his appointed tasks creditably. The same conditions can and should prevail in the teaching profession.

TENURE LEGISLATION

To reduce turnover and to protect teachers against unjust dismissal, legislation has been enacted in several states providing tenure. The primary purpose of such legislation, however, is that of creating conditions which increase teaching efficiency. No teacher can do his best work when his security turns upon the prejudice or political considerations of superintendents and boards of education. He must be free from worry and feelings of insecurity in order to perform efficiently and effectively his task of instructional leadership. At the same time, the unfit must be eliminated from teaching as a further protection to the child and the public who support the schools. Although the fundamental concept of tenure legislation has been based upon the improvement of teaching, the real purpose has been obscured by teachers' associations and other groups in their drives for security at any price, with the result that some tenure legislation has been placed on the statute books which has injured rather than helped the status of the teaching profession.

The Nature of Tenure Legislation

Aimed primarily at the unjust dismissal of teachers, tenure legislation usually provides that, after serving a probationary period of a certain number of years, the teacher cannot be dismissed except for certain specified reasons and, then, only after a hearing at which he is allowed to present evidence in his own defense. The probationary period varies, but is most frequently two or three years. During this time the teacher is granted an annual contract of the traditional type. If the teacher completes the probationary period to the satisfaction of the employing officials and is again offered a position in the system, he must then be granted a "permanent" or "indefinite" contract. Once this type of contract is granted, the teacher cannot be dismissed except for certain stated reasons. These causes are usually in-

competency, insubordination, neglect of duty, immorality, or a justifiable reduction in the number of teaching positions. Usually, the law provides that the charges against the teacher must be made in writing and presented in ample time to allow the preparation of a defense. The teacher may acknowledge the charges by resigning, or may ask for a hearing. Before the teacher can be dismissed, it must be shown that he has failed in one or more respects named in the law. It is assumed that, where conditions are as they should be, the charges will be brought by the superintendent of schools and that the hearing, if one is held, will be before the board of education. Provision is sometimes made for an appeal to the chief state school officer or the state board of education, if the decision of the local authorities is for dismissal. In any case, a final appeal can be made by either party through a regularly instituted court of law. However, school people have endeavored to prepare tenure laws that will, in so far as possible, permit the settlement of cases within the profession itself.

Purposes of Tenure Legislation

Although the purpose of tenure legislation has been stated previously as the improvement of teaching efficiency, the Committee on Tenure of the National Education Association has published a list of ten purposes justifying the adoption of tenure laws:

1. To maintain and improve the educational opportunities of children and youth in every community of the United States.
2. To enrich community life by giving permanency and continuity to the service of the teacher.
3. To encourage boards of education to place the welfare of children above the selfish interests of those political or economic groups which continually seek to dominate the schools.
4. To guarantee employment conditions, providing a sense of security which will encourage teachers to attain the highest standards of professional competence.
5. To encourage the most promising young men and women

- to prepare for teaching as a life work, not as a stepping-stone.
6. To set up definite, orderly procedures by which incompetent, unsatisfactory teachers may be dismissed.
 7. To protect competent, satisfactory teachers from unjust dismissal.
 8. To protect teachers in the exercise of their rights and duties as American citizens.
 9. To protect teachers in preparing children and youth for loyal, effective participation in a democratically controlled society of free men cooperating for the common welfare.
 10. To build in the teacher that confidence and freedom which come with a sense of stability and security as a citizen in a free republic.¹³

It is apparent in this list of purposes that the value of tenure legislation is important to teachers in several expressions of their professional and private lives.

Disadvantages of Tenure

Since the intent of all existing tenure laws seem to guarantee security of employment during good behavior, no one can dispute the fact that this is a reasonable and just demand on the part of the teaching profession. And there can be little doubt that the elimination of this cause of turnover will do much to increase the efficiency of the educational program. However, there are several disadvantages associated with tenure which should be pointed out. In the first place, it is frequently shown that tenure laws attack only a single and less important cause of turnover, and that consequently they do not aid very much in increasing the stability of the profession. This is in line with the practice of using legal compulsion to reach a goal that could be better achieved through indirect measures. Secondly, tenure laws would be unnecessary if school boards and other employing officials were morally and professionally interested only in advancing the educational welfare of children. The emphasis, therefore, should be upon the selection of competent school officials

¹³ National Education Association, Committee on Tenure, *Tenure Legislation—How to Get It, How to Keep It*, p. 7. Washington: The Association, May, 1944.

who would employ and dismiss teachers exclusively on the basis of merit. Finally, the opponents of tenure legislation build a strong case around the fact that tenure laws in many instances promote inefficiency in the educational program. This contention is supported by such arguments as the following:

1. Although tenure laws protect the able teacher against unjust dismissal, they likewise make it difficult or impossible to dismiss the unfit.

2. Such laws tend to build up a sentiment in favor of the teacher in which there is little or no discrimination between the fit and the unfit.

3. Where a tenure law is in operation, a superintendent hesitates about bringing charges against a teacher, since he, in a sense, is on trial himself during the hearing.

4. Once a teacher achieves permanent or indefinite tenure he is quite likely to cease all efforts to improve the quality of his work. The result is a loss in the efficiency of the educational program rather than a gain.

5. School officials who are not particularly professional in their practices will dismiss teachers or trade them with other school officials rather than let them secure indefinite or permanent tenure under the law. Under such conditions the law tends to increase turnover rather than reduce it.

6. Tenure laws are in conflict with certain administrative regulations frequently adopted by boards of education. An example of such regulations is the frequent rule against married women teachers. Regardless of the merits of such regulations, a tenure law prohibits their effective enforcement. Frequently, the result is a refusal on the part of employing officials to permit women teachers to secure indefinite or permanent tenure.

Extent of Tenure

Legal provisions for tenure are found in 26 states, according to an analysis of state statutes made by the Committee on Tenure of the National Education Association.¹⁴ These states are Ala-

¹⁴ National Education Association, Committee on Tenure, *Tenure Legislation—How to Get It, How to Keep It*, p. 25. Washington: The Association, May, 1944.

bama, California, Colorado, Connecticut, Florida, Georgia, Illinois, Indiana, Kansas, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, New Jersey, New Mexico, New York, Ohio, Oregon, Pennsylvania, South Carolina, Tennessee, and Wisconsin. Only seven of these states, however—Alabama, Louisiana, Maryland, Massachusetts, New Jersey, New Mexico, and Pennsylvania—have uniform statewide provisions that apply to all school districts.

In the other 19 states, varying provisions exist relative to the districts that are eligible for tenure. Tenure is mandatory in California school districts having more than 850 pupils in average daily attendance and optional in smaller districts. New York requires that tenure systems be established in cities and union-free districts with populations of more than 4,500, where a superintendent is employed. Florida grants tenure in county districts that meet population standards. In general, the benefits of tenure legislation apply to the larger school districts where professional certification requirements are usually highest, although California, Kentucky, Ohio, and Michigan recognize the interests of the smaller districts. Variations likewise exist in the coverage of the laws. They range from provisions for teachers only to superintendents, principals, doctors, and nurses.

The Effects of Tenure Legislation

There is very little objective evidence upon which to judge fairly the results of tenure legislation. However, a study made by Holmstedt some time ago contains conclusions that appear to bear out the opinions of many students of the problem. Holmstedt made a comparative study of conditions in certain schools in New Jersey, and in a similar group of schools in Connecticut, which had not enacted a tenure law at that time. His principal conclusions from the study were as follows:

1. Contrary to prevailing opinion, the New Jersey tenure law has not reduced the amount of dismissal to a marked degree. The occurrence of dismissal is changed, however, in two ways; a larger percentage of beginning teachers are dismissed and at the same time dismissal is practically eliminated

- among teachers who have been placed on tenure. . . .
2. There is evidence that the New Jersey tenure law has had some effect in stabilizing the teaching staff of the state. The comparisons with Connecticut show that there is less transiency among experienced teachers where the tenure law operates, and teacher turnover is relatively reduced. The difference between Connecticut and New Jersey with respect to stability is not large enough to be of much practical significance in individual school systems. . . .
 3. No evidence was found in this study to show that tenure causes decreased interest in professional improvement. New Jersey teachers on tenure make as great efforts to improve their teaching ability as do comparable Connecticut teachers. . . . The chief difficulty arises in the protection afforded the teacher who becomes unprogressive rather than in the actual increase of deficiency. New Jersey school administrators reported a large number of unsatisfactory teachers who could not be removed, and this can be corrected only by improving the regulations regarding the discharge of tenure teachers. . . .
 4. It is quite clear that protection to the teacher is the chief value of the New Jersey tenure law. . . .
 5. Although many of the values claimed for tenure laws may be questioned, the protection afforded the teacher is a real benefit and certainly justifies the extension of the tenure principle. There is no good reason why a teacher should be subjected to the whims of politically controlled boards of education or to unreasonable social demands of school patrons. Neither can the annual election of teachers be justified on the basis of increased efficiency and professional morale among teachers. . . .
 6. The most aggravating problem faced by school officials in New Jersey is the difficulty involved in removing unsatisfactory teachers who are protected by tenure. Theoretically, the law provides for the dismissal of teachers for just cause, but the procedure is such that school officials have become very reluctant to carry out dismissal proceedings. The result is that New Jersey teachers who secure tenure are practically assured a permanent position. Such a condition is contrary to accepted principles of tenure. Undesirable

teachers should be quickly eliminated and the tenure law is at fault for making the process difficult. . . .

7. One of the significant facts revealed in this study is the difficulty encountered in establishing tenure in New Jersey. Although the tenure law has been in operation for twenty years, opposition to the principle has not subsided by any means. Numerous attempts have been made to repeal the statute and in many sections of the state teachers were not allowed to secure tenure until recent years. Even at present the majority of boards of education are opposed to tenure and a substantial proportion of the teaching staff question the value of the law.¹⁵

The above conclusions may not be true for all states that have enacted tenure laws, but it is probable that similar studies elsewhere would show results approximately the same as those in New Jersey. In the light of such conclusions, it is difficult to say whether or not tenure legislation is for the best educational interests of a state. Apparently, tenure laws operate best in those states and localities where they are least needed and are least effective in those communities where the schools are in greatest need of protection from unprofessional methods of employing and dismissing teachers. Teacher tenure laws have unquestionably been beneficial in reducing the number of unjustified dismissals and in creating a greater sense of security. On the other hand, it is doubtful whether they have advanced in any significant measure the general educational good of those states and communities in which they have been in force.

RELATED READINGS

Anderson, Vernon E., "Status and Trends of Teacher Tenure in the United States," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 27:411-419. September, 1941.

Summarizes the findings on a questionnaire study related to the

¹⁵ Raleigh W. Holmstedt, *A Study of the Effects of the Teacher Tenure Law in New Jersey*, pp. 100-102. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 526. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1932.

present status of tenure, trends, and effects of lack of tenure in 40 states.

Kuhnle, Veronica Trimble, "Sabbatical Leave as an Element in Post-war Teaching Efficiency," *American School Board Journal*, 110:16. June, 1945.

A teacher who is on sabbatical leave points out the benefits of the plan as she sees them.

Lannholm, Gerald V., "Teaching Combinations," *Nation's Schools*, 29:49-50. February, 1942.

Points out the requests and reasons for hiring teachers who are expected to handle a combination of several subjects and responsibilities in the small secondary school.

Michel, Eleanor L., "A High School Teacher Speaks," *French Review*, 19:290-91. March, 1946.

A high school teacher describes her teaching load.

National Education Association, Committee on Tenure, *Critical Analysis of Teacher Tenure Legislation*. Washington: The Association, January, 1939.

This report analyzes tenure laws in 16 different states covering such items as probationary teaching, permanent contracts, dismissals, demotions, and suggested principles for sound tenure legislation.

National Education Association, Committee on Tenure, *Tenure Legislation—How to Get It; How to Keep It*. Washington: The Association, May, 1944.

This pamphlet is designed to stimulate individual teachers and their professional organizations to take action on behalf of tenure legislation. An explanation is offered as to why tenure legislation is necessary, suggestions are made for influencing public opinion, and important legal and technical information is provided for the benefit of those who are interested in the problem of tenure.

National Education Association, Committee on Tenure, *The Effect of Tenure Upon Professional Growth*. Washington: The Association, June, 1940.

To offset the assumption that teachers under tenure are self-satisfied and complacent, the Committee offers this study as evidence that tenure contributes to professional growth in service.

"Ohio Locals Study Sabbatical Leave Plans," *American Teacher*, 29:30. January, 1945.

Data from 22 cities having sabbatical leave plans are summarized. This summary includes a definition of sabbatical leave, advantages, provisions, and rules and regulations governing its operation.

Rossman, John G., "Warren Has Generous Sick-Leave Plan," *American School Board Journal*, 111:55. November, 1945.

The plan for sick leave which operates in Warren, Pennsylvania. It has several interesting features.

"Sick Leave Allowances," *Nation's Schools*, 32:27. December, 1943.

School administrators answer the question, "How many days do you think school board employees should be permitted to be absent for personal illness without loss of pay?"

Scott, Cecil Winfield, "Teacher Tenure, Including Teachers' Contracts," *Review of Educational Research*, 13:285-291. June, 1943.

Summarizes studies covering four types of tenure provisions: annual contract, multiple-year contract, continuing contract, and the indefinite tenure plan.

Teacher Personnel Procedures: Employment Conditions in Service, Chaps. 3, 4. Research Bulletin, Vol. XX, No. 3. Washington: Research Division, National Education Association, May, 1942.

These two chapters discuss provisions for health services to teachers in school systems, the nature and amount of sick leave allowed, substitute service, and practices in terminating the employment of teachers.

The Status of the Teaching Profession, Chaps. 5, 6, 9. Research Bulletin, Vol. XVIII, No. 2. Washington: Research Division, National Education Association, March, 1940.

The opinions of teachers on questions of load, tenure, and health are reported in this study together with data illustrative of programs and provisions covering these considerations in various states.

The Teacher Looks at Personnel Administration, Chap. 3. Research Bulletin, Vol. XXIII, No. 4. Washington: Research Division, National Education Association, December, 1945.

Teacher opinion on seven issues in local personnel administration is reported and discussed, including physical examinations, sick leave, tenure, and dismissal.

The Teacher Looks at Teacher Load, Research Bulletin, Vol. XVII,

No. 5. Washington: Research Division, National Education Association, November, 1939.

The study of teacher load reported in this bulletin was undertaken by the Research Division of the National Educational Association and 188 affiliated local teachers' organizations. It focuses attention upon various aspects of teaching situations which, in the judgment of classroom teachers, are vitally related to teaching efficiency. New responsibilities inherent in recent educational developments are taken into account.

Chapter 9

RETIREMENT

LIKE THE PREVIOUS problems involving the future welfare and security of the teacher, provisions for retirement should be examined carefully. Established either on a local or a state basis, retirement or pension systems protect financially those who leave the teaching profession because of age or disability. Where sound retirement plans are in operation, children in school and taxpayers profit in two principal ways. They are protected from inefficient teaching that comes with permanent disability or old age, and they receive the benefits of more efficient teaching that follows when a teacher is relieved from worry concerning his future economic security. Under a sound retirement plan, he is able to purchase this safeguard at a price much lower than he would have to pay for similar protection with commercial insurance.

Because he believes the educational aspect of the problem is more important than the financial aspect, and because he desires that the teacher view the problem as a business rather than a charitable matter, the experienced student of education prefers the term "retirement system" to "pension system," and today rarely makes use of the latter term in discussing the question.

HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT

According to the best evidence available, the teacher retirement idea had its origin in mutual aid associations, the first of which appears to have been established about 1869.¹ These as-

¹The source of this historical material is in large part Paul Studensky, *Teachers' Pension Systems in the United States*. New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1920.

sociations represented the voluntary efforts of the teachers to insure for themselves decent burial and some small fund for such dependents as might be left. Each member pledged himself to contribute a small sum, usually one dollar, whenever the need arose. Such associations were early established in New York City, Brooklyn, Jersey City, and Camden. Somewhat later, probably about 1888, the objectives of these associations were extended to include sick benefits, and at about the same time the idea was further amplified to provide annuities for those forced to leave the profession permanently because of some special disability or because of old age. Like the earlier mutual aid associations, these old-age and disability annuity associations were wholly voluntary and received little attention from the taxpaying public and those responsible for the administration of the public schools. From 1887 to 1897 ten such associations were established in the larger cities of the country.

The modern teacher retirement idea may be said to have had its origin about 1894 when the first pension legislation was enacted. This law, passed by the New York legislature, "provided for the establishment of a fund the resources of which were to come from deductions made from the pay of the teachers because of absence. . . . Pensions of one-half of the final salary, not exceeding \$1,000, could be granted by a two-thirds vote of the board of education to teachers mentally or physically disabled for the performance of duty, upon the recommendation of the city superintendent. The service requirement was 30 years for women teachers and 35 years for men teachers."² Developments were rapid following the enactment of this law, and by 1900 retirement systems had been established by legislation in 13 of the larger cities of the country. In the meantime (1896) New Jersey had established a state-wide system.

From 1905 to 1914, 65 local and 11 state retirement systems were established, and, from 1915 to 1924, 13 local and 17 state systems made their appearance. Many of these early systems proved to be financially unsound and were either abandoned or replaced by new and improved legislation. Consequently, the

² *Ibid.*, pp. 16-17.

number of systems established between 1894 and 1924 is in no sense an accurate reflection of the number in existence at the close of the period. According to available data, in 1928 there were in existence in the United States 23 state-wide systems, including the one in the District of Columbia, and 56 local systems.³

The most recent report by the Research Division of the National Education Association indicates that at present state-wide joint-contributory retirement plans exist in 44 states and that local retirement and pension plans are in operation in more than 50 cities and counties.⁴ In three additional states, namely, Delaware, New Mexico, and Rhode Island, state-wide pension plans provide protection to teachers without requiring any financial contribution from them. Idaho is the only state in which neither a retirement nor a pension plan has been established. As shown in Figure 23, all but 0.5 per cent of the nation's teachers have some sort of old-age protection.

THE NATURE OF A RETIREMENT SYSTEM

As indicated previously, a teacher retirement system serves a dual purpose. It protects the schools from the dangers of continuing in service those teachers and other workers who are incapacitated or who have outlived their maximum efficiency; and it protects school employees against economic hardship and dependence in old age or during permanent disability. As outlined by the Research Division of the National Education Association, a sound retirement system established in accord with modern theories would operate as follows:

In such a teacher retirement system the state and the teacher are contracting parties. According to rates agreed upon, after scientific investigation of the composition of the teaching staff, and after decision on the kind and value of the benefits to be

³ *The Advance of the Teacher Retirement Movement*, pp. 163-165. Research Bulletin, Vol. VI, No. 3. Washington: Research Division, National Education Association, May, 1928.

⁴ *Statistics of State and Local Teacher Retirement Systems, 1943-44*, pp. 29-30. Research Bulletin, Vol. XXIII, No. 2. Washington: Research Division, National Education Association, April, 1945.

received, the teacher makes a regular contribution to a fund sometimes known as the annuity savings fund. These contributions, made during the period of the teacher's service, are credited to the individual teacher with interest. At the time of retirement the sum of these contributions, plus the interest accumulated thereon, is used to purchase an annuity based on standard mortality tables. This annuity makes up approximately one-half the total retirement allowance received. Fur-

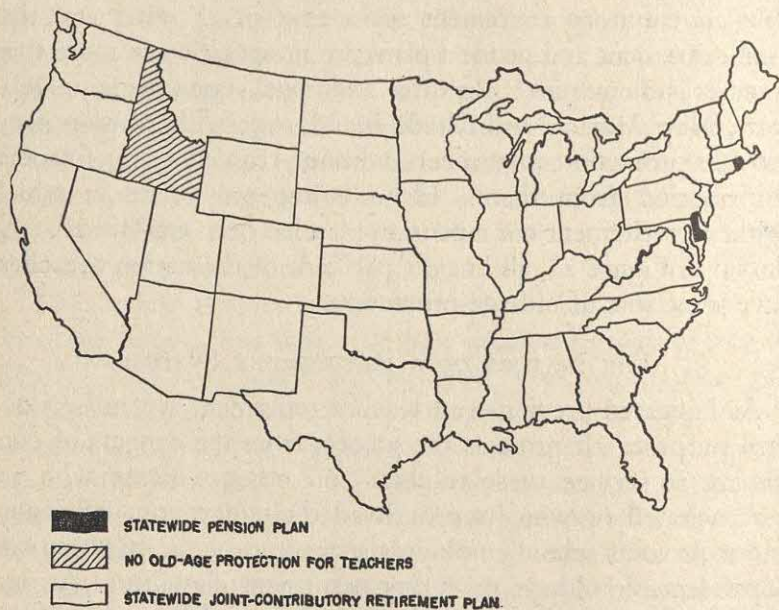


FIGURE 23. The Status of Teacher Retirement in the United States (January 1, 1946).

thermore, the teacher's contributions, with the interest thereon, are subject to refund in case of the teacher's death, resignation, or withdrawal from the teaching profession prior to the time of retirement.

To make up its share of the retirement allowance, the state concurrently during the teacher's period of service makes appropriations to a reserve fund sufficient to finance at the teacher's retirement a pension equal to the annuity purchased by the teacher's accumulated contributions.

The total retirement allowance composed of the annuity and

pension described above, is available in the form in which the teacher desires to receive it, upon the fulfillment of certain minimum age or service conditions, or both, at which time retirement is optional. A compulsory age of retirement may be set up. Provision is also made for the retirement of teachers who become disabled prior to the age for regular retirement and who have been in service for a reasonable period.

To render a system of retiring allowances effective, membership is required of all teachers newly employed. Upon the establishment of a system of retirement allowances, teachers already in service are given the choice of joining the retirement system, this choice to be exercised within a reasonably short period. The state assumes the cost of making up amounts due such teachers for service prior to the establishment of the retirement system. If the retirement system inaugurated replaces an older plan, financial provision is also made to guarantee the full amount of allowances promised under that plan.

The administration of a teacher retirement system is controlled by a board representing the interests of the public and the teacher, and whose personnel is carefully prescribed by the retirement act. This board oversees the financing and granting of retirement allowances, looks after the reserves accumulated, and takes the steps required to maintain the system on a sound actuarial basis; for instance, the making of changes in amounts or rates shown to be necessary by the periodic actuarial investigations of the fund.⁵

From this general description of the nature and purpose of a teacher retirement law, we may now turn to certain specific questions which are sure to be aroused in the minds of the prospective teacher whenever the problem is presented for discussion. Too frequently the first intimation that the beginning teacher has that there is such a thing as a retirement system is when he is notified that a certain per cent or a certain flat sum will be deducted from his salary for this purpose, or when he receives his first check and finds the deduction already made.

⁵ *Current Issues in Teacher Retirement*, p. 225. Research Bulletin, Vol. VIII, No. 5. Washington: Research Division, National Education Association, November, 1930.

Naturally, doubts arise in his mind when he finds deductions being made from a salary that he already considers insufficient. He is young, optimistic, and little or not at all concerned about the problem of old age; he would much prefer using all of his salary for his immediate needs and wants and, when compelled to make regular contributions to a retirement system, is likely to be skeptical or even resentful.

However, if he is alert to his own welfare and to any degree professionally minded, he will set aside his prejudices and seek an understanding of the nature and purpose of the retirement system. In so doing he will want answers to such questions as the following: (1) How is a retirement system financed and what part of the cost must be borne by the teacher? (2) How much does the teacher receive at retirement and how are payments made? (3) Should membership in a retirement system be compulsory? (4) What happens to a teacher's deposits in case of death or in case of withdrawal from the profession? (5) Who pays for the annuity of the teacher who has only a few years to serve when the system is placed in operation? (6) At what age and under what conditions does the teacher retire? (7) What provisions, if any, are made for permanent disability before the age of retirement? (8) Who controls and administers a teacher retirement system? (9) How can the teacher be sure that the system is sound and that his investment is safe? An effort is made in the following paragraphs to answer these questions in terms of present-day theories and practices.

FINANCING THE RETIREMENT SYSTEM

Retirement systems, with few exceptions, are financed by funds collected from members and from funds contributed by the state or the local school district. State legislatures frequently appropriate money from general funds or from special funds earmarked for educational purposes. In some instances, the state legislature may appropriate all or part of the state contribution to the retirement system, and then charge the same against school districts in proportion to the number of members who belong to the system locally. The practice is also followed

of local school districts paying into the retirement fund out of their own financial resources. In any event, the money thus contributed by the legislature or by the school district comes from public funds. Theoretically, at least, it comes from state revenue since education is a function of the state, even though this revenue is collected locally. It is generally recommended, however, that public contributions to retirement systems be made from general state revenues, otherwise too heavy a burden is placed upon resources available for schools.

An analysis of the sources of public funds used for financing retirement systems throughout the United States shows the following breakdown:

1. Individual school districts contribute from local funds, or their contribution is withheld from state aid due—Alabama, Colorado, Delaware, Louisiana, Maine, Missouri, Montana, New Jersey, New York, South Carolina, and Wyoming.
2. A county tuition fund is used in North Dakota.
3. A method of state appropriations and local contributions is employed in California, Hawaii, New Hampshire, Ohio, Oregon, and Pennsylvania.
4. The same method is followed, except the state contributes in proportion to that part of the members' salary paid from state funds, while the school district pays in proportion to that part of the members' salary paid from local funds—Georgia and North Carolina.
5. The same method is followed, except the state pays an accrued liability contribution, while the normal contribution is paid by local school boards and counties. The counties are authorized to levy a tax sufficient to meet the need estimated by the retirement board—Arizona.
6. State appropriations are made without charge to local school districts in Arkansas, Connecticut, Florida, Illinois, Indiana, Kansas, Kentucky, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Mississippi, Nebraska, Nevada, Oklahoma, South Dakota, Tennessee, Texas, Utah, Vermont, Virginia, Washington, West Virginia, and Wisconsin.⁶

⁶ *Statutory Provisions for Statewide Retirement Systems*, p. 10. Research Division and National Council on Teacher Retirement. Washington: National Education Association, January, 1946.

For the most part, practice in financing retirement systems follows the recommendations that students of the subject have made for several years. They have advocated that the cost of a retirement system should be met jointly by the teachers and by the public, and that the cost of the benefits received should be distributed approximately equally between the public and the teachers. This position has been held because (1) joint contributions should be made to any plan that is beneficial to both parties; (2) more adequate benefits result; (3) a feeling of co-operation is built between employer and employee; (4) the demoralizing influence of a straight pension plan is avoided; and (5) the arrangement provides an important element of contractual security.

The methods and amounts of money paid by teachers into retirement systems, as shown in Table 8, vary considerably among states. The majority of state systems call for the payment of a fixed percentage of the salary received by the teacher annually. In several states the annual payment is fixed by an actuary so that the fund will produce at a given age an annuity equal to a percentage of the average final salary times the number of years that the teacher has belonged to the retirement system. California operates a system whereby the teacher pays \$12 for each year of service to 30 years prior to July 1, 1935; \$24 for each year of service from July 1, 1935, to July 1, 1944; and \$60 for each year of service after July 1, 1944. Additional contributions are fixed by an actuary sufficient to produce an annuity at age 63 in accordance with a prescribed formula. In Kentucky, on the other hand, the teacher pays 2 per cent of his salary to \$2,000 if his age at joining the system is less than 30; 3 per cent of his salary to \$2,000 if his age at joining is between 30 and 40; and 4 per cent if his age at joining is over 40 years. South Dakota operates an optional plan which provides that the member may elect the method of contribution that will produce at age 60 an annuity of either \$100, \$200, or \$300.

The important point is not the particular arrangement under which the teacher makes his payments but rather the assurance that the contributions to the system will be equitably apportioned

TABLE 8

The Methods and Amounts of Contributions Made by Members to
State Retirement Systems

State	Contributions by Members				
	Percentage Fixed	Percentage Varies	Flat Sum	Fixed by Actuary	Plan Optional
Alabama.....	3½				
Arizona.....				X	
Arkansas.....	4				
California.....			\$12, \$24, \$60		
Colorado.....	3½				
Connecticut.....	5				
Delaware.....	1				
Florida.....				X	
Georgia.....	5				
Hawaii.....				X	
Illinois.....	4				
Indiana.....				X	
Kansas.....	4				
Kentucky.....		2-4			
Louisiana.....	4				
Maine.....	5				
Maryland.....				X	
Massachusetts.....	5				
Michigan.....	5				
Minnesota.....	5				
Mississippi.....	4				
Missouri.....	3				
Montana.....	5				
Nebraska.....	5				
Nevada.....	5				
New Hampshire.....	5				
New Jersey.....				X	
New York.....	4				
North Carolina.....	4				
North Dakota.....		1-3			
Ohio.....	5				
Oklahoma.....	4				
Oregon.....				X	
Pennsylvania.....				X	
South Carolina.....	4				
South Dakota.....					X
Tennessee.....	5				
Texas.....	5				
Utah.....				X	
Vermont.....	5				
Virginia.....				X	
Washington.....				X	
West Virginia.....	4				
Wisconsin.....	5				
Wyoming.....	1				

between the teacher and the public, that the payments will be adequate to insure that the promised annuities will be forthcoming, that the deposits of both the public and the teacher are clearly stated in the law or rules providing for the system, that the amount of these deposits shall remain unchanged unless altered by the retirement board on the basis of thorough actuarial studies, and that the teacher's contributions and the state's shall be made regularly and concurrently during the teacher's period of service.

BENEFIT ALLOWANCES

The principal benefit provided in a retirement system is the annual allowance made to members who meet the requirements for service or superannuation retirement. Besides this main benefit, retirement systems include disability retirement payments, death benefits, and refunds in case of withdrawal from teaching. All of these features of current retirement plans will be considered in this section of the chapter.

Service Retirement Allowances

A retirement allowance for service or superannuation is usually paid to the eligible member each month. The check received represents the member's own contributions to the retirement fund over a period of years and the contributions that have been made from public revenues. In some cases, the retired teacher who was in service before the retirement system started receives additional benefits from a pension fund. In Illinois, for example, credit for prior service equals twice the normal pension due to the teacher on account of his contributions to the pension fund during his period of prior service. Thus he receives not only a retirement annuity, but also an allowance for his period of service before the retirement system started. These two payments are frequently lumped together in the formula for determining the total allowance, without separate computation.

A number of retirement systems have fixed maximum and minimum amounts of money which the member may receive annually. Sometimes the fixed upper and lower limits of benefits

paid apply only to those who retire with a given amount of service or at a specified age. In some plans, these limits apply to all, as in Kentucky, where the maximum total allowance is fixed at one half the annual salary, or \$1,000, and the minimum at \$100.

Some idea of the retirement allowances provided in various

TABLE 9

Allowances Granted to Teachers Retired for Superannuation or Service in State Retirement Systems, 1943-44*

<i>State Systems</i>	<i>Allowances</i>		
	<i>Smallest</i>	<i>Average</i>	<i>Largest</i>
Alabama.....	\$ 19.08	\$ 338.77	\$1,851.60
Arizona.....	600.00	610.67	644.64
Arkansas.....	180.00	421.67	600.00
Connecticut.....	500.00	1,281.80	3,732.96
Illinois.....	92.16	477.36	1,500.00
Indiana.....	350.00	625.00	960.00
Kansas.....	48.00	157.08	204.00
Kentucky.....	100.00	249.63	660.00
Louisiana.....	71.28	335.29	1,584.48
Maryland.....	335.00	910.00	2,836.00
Massachusetts.....	27.28	1,146.69	2,473.44
Michigan.....	500.00	978.00	1,200.00
Minnesota.....	111.36	737.31	1,500.00
Montana.....	120.00	420.00	750.00
Nevada.....	600.00	600.00	600.00
New Jersey.....	152.23	1,534.00	5,263.80
New York.....	291.12	1,202.82	3,981.72
Ohio.....	16.80	738.98	1,555.08
Pennsylvania.....	243.00	1,127.00	3,842.00
Texas.....	152.64	533.04	1,402.80
Utah.....	360.00	758.88	1,200.00
Vermont.....	440.56	882.30
Washington.....	120.12	479.76	608.88
West Virginia.....	148.92	523.85	1,291.92

* Systems in Maine and New Hampshire have not been in operation long enough to include.

states and local school systems may be obtained from Tables 9 and 10. Table 9 shows the smallest, the average, and the largest amounts received by teachers retired for superannuation or service in states having state-wide retirement systems. Table 10 shows similar figures for local school systems which maintain their own retirement systems. The data presented in these ta-

bles cover the school year, 1943-44, and are adapted from a Research Bulletin of the National Education Association.⁷

It will be observed that the annual allowances for 1943-44, including both state and local plans, range in size from an average of \$76.92 in St. Paul, Minnesota, to \$1,673.31 in New York State.

TABLE 10

Allowances Granted to Teachers Retired for Superannuation or Service in Local Retirement Systems, 1943-1944

<i>Local Systems</i>	<i>Allowances</i>		
	<i>Smallest</i>	<i>Average</i>	<i>Largest</i>
California			
San Diego.....	\$298.92	\$ 627.65	\$ 746.64
Colorado			
Colorado Springs.....	222.00	415.00	420.00
Iowa			
Cedar Rapids.....	500.00	500.00	500.00
Davenport.....	480.00	480.00	480.00
Des Moines.....	390.00	472.32	480.00
Kansas			
Kansas City.....	551.76	746.88	1,143.74
Leavenworth.....	483.44	500.00
Parsons.....	500.00	500.00	500.00
Salina.....	375.00	375.00	375.00
Topeka.....	499.92	499.92	900.00
Louisiana			
New Orleans.....	383.91	816.21	1,155.47
Minnesota			
Duluth.....	592.30	834.30	1,111.00
Minneapolis.....	89.16	692.07	1,354.20
St. Paul.....	75.00	76.92	85.00
Nebraska			
Omaha.....	900.00	900.00	900.00
New York			
New York.....	386.89	1,673.31	7,250.57
Rhode Island			
Bristol.....	300.00	300.00	300.00
Newport.....	357.84	489.60	588.84
Vermont			
Rutland.....	500.00	500.00	500.00
Wisconsin			
Milwaukee.....	480.00	1,034.50	1,200.00

⁷ *Statistics of State and Local Teacher Retirement Systems, 1943-44*, p. 43. Research Bulletin, Vol. XXIII, No. 2. Washington: Research Division, National Education Association, April, 1945.

The median amount paid is \$558, and the average payment in 21 cases out of 42 is between \$400 and \$900.

The initial reaction of a prospective teacher to the information given in the table will probably be that the annual allowances are entirely too small, particularly in certain of the systems. And it is true that these annuities, in many cases, would scarcely provide the necessities of life under normal conditions. There is no question about the need for increasing the size of the allowances in several states. However, it is not expected that the teacher will be entirely dependent on the annuity provided by the retirement system. It is assumed that he will have made certain savings over the years leading to retirement, that he will probably have provided himself with a home, and that he will have made some investments in old-age insurance. Furthermore, in judging the returns from the retirement system, the teacher must consider that the same annuity from a commercial insurance company would cost a great deal more. Larger retirement allowances can be provided for, but only at an added cost to both the teacher and the public.

Disability Retirement Payments

A sound retirement system likewise makes provision for the teacher who becomes disabled prior to the time for regular retirement. This is in line with the need for maintaining an effective school system through the removal of personnel who are no longer able to render efficient service. At the same time, the provision for disability retirement payments represents the observance of the simple principles of humanity and gratitude due to the teacher who has given years of service to the profession.

Disability allowances are granted for mental or physical illness under conditions specified in the law or the rules of the retirement board. In all states having retirement systems, except Oklahoma, a minimum number of years of service, ranging from five to 25, is required before such an allowance is made, or after a specified age has been reached. The allowance received is either proportionate to the benefits the teacher would have received had he remained in service until the time for regular re-

tirement or based upon the actuarial equivalent of his contributions with a proportionate pension from public funds.

The extent of the disability necessary to permit a claim for retirement and a disability allowance is nearly always specified in the law or in the rules of the retirement board. In this respect, the most common ruling is to the effect that the disability is such as to prevent the teacher from further performing his duties in school. Before being eligible for disability retirement, however, the member must be examined by a physician or a group of physicians and declared permanently disabled for the teaching profession. Following his retirement, the annuitant must undergo periodic physical examinations, usually the first five years and every five years thereafter until he reaches the age for superannuation retirement. Whenever there is evidence that the disability no longer exists, the teacher is returned to his position and the allowance is discontinued. In some cases the law provides that if the individual is unfit for teaching, but capable of still engaging in a gainful occupation, his disability allowance shall be reduced to an amount that, together with his earnings in another occupation, does not exceed the average compensation received during the last few years preceding his retirement.

Disability payments are usually lower than those for service or superannuation, as shown in Table 11, because the member has fewer contributions and years of service to his credit. The data presented in Table 11 show that the smallest average sum paid in 1943-44 amounted to \$112.72 and the highest average amounted to \$935 with the median at \$425.

Death Benefits

Since retirement systems are designed primarily to provide economic security for those who retire from teaching after years of active service, death benefit considerations are secondary to that purpose.

When a member dies in service, the contributions he has made to the retirement fund are handled in several ways: (1) His total accumulated contributions may be returned with interest to his estate or named beneficiary. (2) Part of his accumulated con-

tributions may be returned. (3) A death benefit may be paid in addition to the return of his total accumulated contributions. (4) A death benefit consisting of the state's contributions as well as the member's contributions may be paid in a lump sum or as an annuity payable to the beneficiary. (5) No part of the total

TABLE 11

Allowances Granted to Teachers Retired for Disability in
State Retirement Systems, 1943-44⁸

State Systems	Allowances		
	<i>Smallest</i>	<i>Average</i>	<i>Largest</i>
Alabama.....	120.12	225.54	354.96
Arizona.....	462.48	559.26	619.68
Arkansas.....	180.00	171.38	600.00
Connecticut.....	499.20	665.47	1,223.40
Illinois.....	200.04	249.37	423.74
Indiana.....	500.00	500.00	500.00
Kansas.....	84.60	132.60	199.08
Kentucky.....	100.00	112.72	156.32
Louisiana.....	48.24	304.32	666.12
Maryland.....	309.00	424.00	628.00
Massachusetts.....	386.20	724.68	1,423.16
Michigan.....	300.00	643.00	1,200.00
Minnesota.....	527.52	527.52	527.52
Montana.....	120.00	420.00	750.00
New Jersey.....	238.00	855.00	2,153.64
New York.....	279.36	664.87	1,804.37
Ohio.....	210.12	503.69	849.24
Pennsylvania.....	332.00	935.00	3,027.00
Texas.....	51.36	122.67	196.20
Utah.....	279.12	334.92	360.00
Washington.....	360.00	360.00	360.00

⁸ *Statistics of State and Local Teacher Retirement Systems, 1943-44*, p. 44. Research Bulletin, Vol. XXIII, No. 2. Washington: Research Division, National Education Association, April, 1945.

accumulated contributions of the member are returned. The provisions covering the disposition of the member's total accumulated contributions, in event of death during active service, are found in the retirement laws and regulations of the several state and local systems.

When a member dies after retirement, his allowance is usually

stopped and no death benefit is paid to his estate, unless special arrangements for it were made before he started to draw his retirement allowance. In some of the more recently established retirement systems, his estate would receive the unused balance of his total accumulated contributions. Most states, however, permit the member to elect a choice of options covering the disposition of his unused allowances in event of an early death.

Withdrawal from Membership

A discussion of teacher retirement with a group of prospective teachers will almost always bring forth a question regarding the teacher's deposits in case of withdrawal from the teaching profession prior to retirement. Since a separate account is kept for each depositor to the retirement system, the contributions made are looked upon as personal property much the same as they would be regarded if placed in a savings account. Interest is generally credited to each account annually. When the member withdraws from the profession, all of his deposits together with the accumulated interest are refunded.

It should be readily apparent to the prospective teacher that he stands to lose nothing financially if he withdraws from the profession. In fact, he stands to gain by having an accumulated savings fund with interest compounded annually.

At the same time the retirement system gains from his withdrawal because the contributions made by the state have been accumulating at the same time, but these are not paid to the withdrawing member; they are added to the general assets of the retirement system.

A number of retirement systems, however, provide that a member who withdraws prior to retirement may leave his accumulated contributions in the fund at an established rate of interest until he reaches the eligibility requirements for receiving a retirement allowance. When this point is reached, he is then given an annuity which is the actuarial equivalent of his accumulated contributions up to the time of withdrawal plus the earned interest on this principal sum.

ELIGIBILITY REQUIREMENTS

All state and local retirement systems have certain rules and regulations that are necessary to their successful operation. These rules and regulations include membership, eligibility for retirement, credit for out-of-state service, and the age of compulsory retirement.

Membership

Nearly all state retirement systems make membership compulsory for new teachers and in several instances membership is compulsory for teachers in service unless a claim is made for exemption within a limited period of time. There would probably be little argument for exempting the teacher in service were it not for the fact that the passage of a retirement law through a legislature frequently depends on the active support of the entire teaching body. This support might not always be forthcoming if all teachers in service knew they would be compelled to become members. Furthermore, compulsory membership for those in service is of secondary importance since most mature teachers see the advantages of a retirement plan and voluntarily seek membership.

The arguments for compulsory membership are many. The most important of these may be summarized as follows:

1. For a retirement system, as in the case of all forms of insurance, accurate predictions regarding disability, length of service, and length of life are essential. These predictions are made in terms of large sections of a population group and, consequently, can be depended upon only when the number involved is large. As a result, compulsory membership is usually necessary in order to insure that a retirement system will be financially sound.

2. The chief objective of a retirement system is educational. If membership is not compulsory, there is no real assurance that the child will be protected from the teacher who has been rendered inefficient by old age or disability.

3. Compulsory membership is desirable from the standpoint of the individual teacher. Young people are usually little concerned about old age. As a consequence, they delay the purchase of the necessary protection. This delay means an increased financial burden in all cases, and frequently complete neglect of this important safeguard.

4. Membership in a retirement system encourages thrift and promotes the insurance habit.

Eligibility for Retirement

A member must meet the requirements pertaining to retirement before he is eligible for allowances. Thirty-one states set the number of years of service—usually in combination with age—as a minimum requirement for retirement.⁹ The number of service years required runs from five in a few states to 35 in several states, the most typical period being 30 years. In most cases from one half to two thirds of this service must have been rendered in the state granting the annuity, except where credit for out-of-state service may be purchased by the member.

A minimum age, in combination with one or more factors, is established as a condition for optional requirement in 28 states, and 14 states set a minimum age as the sole requirement for superannuation retirement.¹⁰ The range in minimum age is from 50 to 65 years, with 60 as the age specified in almost half of the retirement systems.

Credit for Out-of-State Service

In 26 of the 45 state retirement plans provision is made for out-of-state service credit. An individual who taught in New Jersey for ten years, let us say, takes a position in Pennsylvania. He will be granted credit for the period of teaching in New Jersey, under the Pennsylvania retirement plan, provided he makes a lump-sum payment or an increased rate of contribution to the Pennsylvania fund sufficient to bring his account up to

⁹ *Statutory Provisions for Statewide Retirement Systems*, pp. 20-21. Research Division and National Council on Teacher Retirement. Washington: National Education Association, January, 1946.

¹⁰ *Ibid.*

the point where it would have been had his prior service been in Pennsylvania.

New York and West Virginia go even further in providing for the migratory teacher. The New York system permits the transfer of a member's pension reserve to another retirement system and the acceptance of the pension reserve of a teacher who comes to New York from the retirement system of another state. West Virginia grants retirement credits for any teacher coming into the state to the same extent and upon the same basis as West Virginia teachers are given credit in any other state to which they go. In general, it may be said that retirement systems do make provision for migratory teachers.

Compulsory Retirement

All but 11 of the 45 state retirement plans make retirement compulsory at a specified age, usually age 70. However, retirement at an earlier age is virtually compulsory in a few states where the employer as well as the member can make application for the retirement of the member, assuming that the latter has met the requirements for voluntary retirement.

Whether or not age 70 is the proper age for compulsory retirement is a debatable question. Certainly the age limit should be placed low enough to insure that all will retire before old age seriously affects their teaching efficiency. On the other hand, care must likewise be taken to see that the retirement age is not set so low as to bring about the resignation of competent teachers. Not only would this result in a loss to the teaching profession, but it would also increase the financial burden of the retirement system. The earlier teachers are retired, the heavier will be the levy on retirement funds for the payment of annuities.

In states where the compulsory age of retirement has not been fixed, the lack is sometimes justified by saying that teachers will retire at the proper time if given the option of doing so, and that the omission of a compulsory age clause eliminates all danger of retiring those who are obviously competent in spite of their advanced years. The error in this line of argument grows out of the assumption that teachers will in all cases accept optional

retirement before the quality of their work begins to suffer. Many of them see nothing in the retirement system but the monetary reward. Since this is usually lower than their salary, they prefer to continue teaching long after they should have been retired. Under such conditions, there is little doubt about the wisdom of a compulsory retirement age provision.

In a few states, where the compulsory age of retirement is fixed, extensions beyond this age are possible when the member, the employer, and the retirement board agree to the extension. This arrangement enables the competent to continue teaching to the benefit of the school system, the child, and the public.

ADMINISTRATION

The administrative control of retirement systems is generally placed in the hands of a specially created board known as the retirement board or the board of trustees. The only exceptions to this practice among state systems are found in Delaware, where the state treasurer controls the system; Nebraska, where the fund is administered by the board of educational land and funds; and Nevada and Wyoming, where the state board of education is responsible for directing the retirement system.

Most retirement boards are composed of state officials with ex officio status and representatives appointed or elected from the membership. Teachers, as a rule, are members of retirement boards, although the number varies. In Alabama, the board consists of one city or county superintendent, one principal, one teacher, the state superintendent of education, the state treasurer, director of finance, and the executive director of the Alabama Education Association. Three teachers from different parts of the state are elected to the New Jersey retirement board at an annual convention of the members of the retirement association. They serve with the commissioner of education, the state treasurer, an appointee of the governor, and a seventh member who is elected by the board itself. In the state of Washington, the retirement law prescribes that five teachers shall be appointed to the board by the state superintendent of education, and that these teachers, the state superintendent, and the state insurance com-

missioner shall constitute the retirement board. A few state systems include lay members on the board who have no special qualifications for the office. The teachers who are appointed or elected to board membership hold their position for terms ranging from one to nine years with the median term of office at three years.

Unless the retirement law expressly provides how the funds of the system may be invested and at what rate of interest, the retirement board has complete jurisdiction over the use of the funds. It is a responsibility of the board to see that the funds are invested safely and profitably, and that the executive personnel employed to administer the system discharge their duties fully. To safeguard the funds contributed by the members and by the state, to check upon the financial stability of the system, most retirement laws include mandatory provisions for actuarial surveys. They specify that annual valuations of the funds be made, and that periodic surveys of the mortality and service experience be conducted.

It must be remembered that the operation of a state teacher retirement system is big business, involving large sums of money, innumerable records, considerable correspondence, and a great deal of clerical work. All of this costs money which must come out of the available funds. In some large systems, according to an investigation by the National Education Association, "the total annual cost of operation runs over \$80,000."¹¹ The same study showed that the administrative costs per member ran between one and two dollars a year, with higher expenses on a per capita membership basis in small retirement systems.

THE FEDERAL SOCIAL SECURITY ACT

When the Federal Social Security Act was passed by Congress in 1935, teachers and other public employees were excluded from the coverage of the act. The act provided for (1) grants to states for old-age assistance to needy persons, (2) old-age insurance benefits for persons in various occupational classifica-

¹¹ *Statistics of State and Local Teacher Retirement Systems, 1943-44*, p. 45.

tions, (3) grants to states for administering unemployment compensation, (4) grants to states for aid to dependent children, (5) grants to states for maternal and child welfare, (6) public health work, and (7) grants to states for aid to the blind.

Because teachers were excluded from old-age and survivors' insurance benefits, attempts have been made by teachers and other uncovered groups to amend the act. These efforts have not succeeded, but should they succeed in the future teachers would then become eligible for benefits under conditions specified in the law.

Retirement and Death Benefits

The beginning teacher should understand the retirement and death benefit provisions of the Social Security Act before deciding whether or not coverage should be extended to members of the teaching profession. In a hypothetical case worked out by the Research Division of the National Education Association, a teacher aged 35 with an annual salary of \$1,374 would be required to contribute 1 per cent of his salary for the first two years of membership in the federal plan.¹² For the next three years, he would contribute 2 per cent of his salary or \$27.48 each year. Then for another three-year period, his contributions would be made at the rate of 2½ per cent or \$34.35 annually. Finally the rate would stabilize itself at 3 per cent or \$41.22 a year—assuming no change in salary—so long as he remained in teaching. He would then receive at age 65 an old-age benefit of \$412.62 a year. If married, he would receive additional benefits for his wife equal to one half the amount paid to him, with supplementary allowances for any eligible children.

It might be well to ask how this retirement benefit would compare with allowances made by existing teacher retirement systems. A rough comparison of benefits under the two plans is presented in Table 12 where the average annual teaching salaries are listed for several states together with the average retire-

¹² *The Status of Teacher Retirement*, p. 56. Research Bulletin, Vol. XIX, No. 1. Washington: Research Division, National Education Association, January, 1941.

ment allowances paid in those states. These retirement allowances may then be compared with the estimated social security benefits for the same average annual salaries. It will be noted that only a single instance appears in the table where estimated social security benefits are higher than the retirement allowances for teachers during the period considered. This fact naturally

TABLE 12

A Comparison of Teacher Retirement Allowances and
Estimated Social Security Benefits^{1a}

<i>State</i>	<i>Average Annual Salary 1937-38</i>	<i>Average Retirement Allowance Paid, 1939-40</i>	<i>Social Security Benefits 30 year Service</i>
Connecticut.....	\$1,862	\$ 724	\$746
Illinois.....	1,608	450	443
Louisiana.....	982	393	362
Maryland.....	1,564	746	437
Massachusetts.....	2,009	866	495
Michigan.....	1,586	822	440
Montana.....	1,077	410	374
Nevada.....	1,465	600	424
New Jersey.....	2,006	1,464	495
New York.....	2,322	1,015	536
Ohio.....	1,506	781	430
Pennsylvania.....	1,593	899	441
Utah.....	1,324	762	406
Vermont.....	952	311	358
Washington.....	1,746	471	461

^{1a} *Ibid.*, p. 56.

raises grave doubts about the wisdom of substituting the federal social security plan for existing teacher retirement systems. However, it is quite possible that teachers would take a different attitude toward the federal plan if they were permitted to join it on a voluntary basis.

In the case of death benefits paid under the Social Security Act, the widow of a deceased contributor would receive monthly benefits until the children reached the age of 18 years. Then at age 65, the widow would receive an old-age allowance equal to three fourths of the amount which her husband would have been paid had he lived to collect his annuity. This feature

of the social security law stands in sharp contrast to the fact that no state-wide teacher retirement system makes provision for benefit payments to dependents in event of the member's death before retirement.¹⁴

Withdrawal and Migration

The beginning teacher will likewise wish to know how he would be affected under the Social Security Act, if he withdrew from the profession or migrated to another state. In answer to the question of withdrawal, no contributions to the social security fund are returned when an individual leaves a covered employment. They are kept for him in the trust until he reaches retirement age or benefits are paid to survivors, according to the provisions of the law, should he die before reaching the age of 65. Whereas this provision is mandatory in the Social Security Act, it is optional in 18 state retirement systems; he may elect to receive a lump-sum refund or leave his accumulated contributions in the retirement fund until he meets the qualifications for receiving a deferred annuity at a later date.¹⁵

With reference to migration from a teaching position in one state to a teaching position in another state, the provisions of the Social Security Act would apply irrespective of location in the United States, if teaching was a covered occupation. This would be true because social security is unrestricted by state boundaries, being national in its scope. On the other hand, considerable criticism has been made concerning the lack of care for migratory teachers in state retirement plans. However, amendments to state retirement laws in recent years have extended credit for out-of-state service with the result that 26 states now make provision for it.¹⁶

Influence of the Social Security Act

The possible extension of the Social Security Act to provide old-age and survivor's insurance benefits for teachers creates a

¹⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 57.

¹⁵ *Statutory Provisions for Statewide Retirement Systems*, p. 54.

¹⁶ *Ibid.*, pp. 53-54.

number of problems. Among these problems are (1) the future status of existing local and state teacher retirement systems, (2) provision for teachers who are retired and are dependent upon their allowances, (3) financial obligations carried by teachers if existing systems continue and membership in the federal program is mandatory, (4) financial obligations imposed upon local school districts under the federal plan and the effect this would have indirectly upon teachers' salaries, and (5) the continuance of state contributions to teacher retirement systems.

In an effort to meet such problems—should the Social Security Act be extended to cover teachers—retirement laws enacted within the past five years show a definite influence of the Federal Social Security Act. The Arizona law of 1943 provided that “if the old-age and survivor’s benefit payments should be extended to cover teachers under the state retirement system, the Arizona retirement plan would be terminated and each member on request would be paid the amount of accumulated contributions standing to his credit.”¹⁷ No provision was made in the Arizona law for continuing payments to members drawing retirement benefits. In the retirement law of South Carolina, it was stated merely that the teachers’ retirement plan would be revised upon “a fair and equitable basis” so that the beneficiaries of the state system could be included in the federal system.

The Delaware teacher retirement law provided more specifically for a possible change to the federal plan. It stipulated that present retirement benefits would be reduced in proportion to the federal benefits granted. Missouri, however, went even further in expressing an influence of the Social Security Act. The state retirement formula for computing benefits is almost identical with the federal formula. Moreover, if the members of the retirement system are required to contribute to the federal system, the contributions will be made from the state retirement fund, with federal benefits considered as “corresponding parts of the benefits otherwise due and payable under the provisions” of the state retirement law. The Iowa retirement plan duplicates the provisions of the federal Social Security Act for old-age

¹⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 54.

and survivor's insurance benefits. From this brief description of the recent state retirement laws, it is apparent that the Social Security Act has had a definite influence on teacher retirement systems.

THE TEACHER AND THE RETIREMENT SYSTEM

Does the teacher who enrolls in a teacher retirement system have any assurance that the deposits he makes will be properly protected? The answer to this question is essentially the same as must be given in the case of any other investment. Rarely can the ordinary investor have anything more than a general knowledge of the organization to which he intrusts his savings. He may know that a certain form of investment is generally regarded as conservative and relatively safe, and he may have enough facts about the particular organization with which he is dealing to feel reasonably certain that it is among the most reliable of the classification to which it belongs. Further knowledge he rarely has, nor would he be likely to make intelligent use of additional information if it were available. In large part, at least, he is placing his reliance upon the reputation of a particular organization and his faith in the integrity of his fellow men.

The teacher who is called upon to become a member of a teacher retirement system is placed in a position quite similar to that in which the ordinary investor finds himself. Retirement systems on occasion have become insolvent and teachers have either lost a part of their investments or have failed to receive the benefits that the system was supposed to guarantee. However, such losses have for the most part been sustained under systems established while the movement was still young, or under systems organized by groups with little or no knowledge of the problems involved. Students of the subject have learned much from the mistakes made in earlier days, and it is highly improbable that the systems either established or reorganized recently will ever encounter any serious financial difficulty, provided those responsible for their planning adhere to the principles

that have been rather well established through experience and research.

Although the teacher cannot assure himself of the financial security of a retirement system, there are means by which he may make an estimate of its probable strength. In the first place, the character of the board of trustees responsible for the control and administration of the system furnishes a fairly reliable index of its probable future. If the board of trustees is made up of men and women of ability and integrity who are thoroughly acquainted with the educational and financial problems involved, there is little likelihood that the system will be permitted to fail.

More specifically, it may be said that a sound retirement system is one that is based on careful actuarial studies. Rates of contribution by the teachers and public and the annuities guaranteed are not the products of guesswork but are derived after thorough investigations of the experience, disability, and mortality history of the teaching body. The system is operated on a reserve rather than a cash basis. The reserve funds necessary to guarantee the benefits promised are determined by careful actuarial calculations, and the deposits necessary to maintain these reserves are regularly set aside. Finally, provision is made for periodic actuarial investigations to insure the continued solvency of the system. These investigations indicate whether or not changes in the rates or in the benefits promised are necessary, and permit the required adjustments to be made before the financial structure is seriously weakened. Even in the most carefully planned retirement system, revision of these estimates may be necessary from time to time in order to insure financial soundness.

Unless there is evidence that a retirement system has been carelessly organized, and is therefore financially unsound, there is no valid reason why the teacher should not give the system his wholehearted co-operation and support. Educationally, a sound retirement system means that school children are protected from teachers rendered incompetent by disability or advanced age; that capable young people will be attracted to the teaching pro-

fession; that efficient teachers will be retained in service; that the teacher's work will improve because his mind is relieved of the fear of a destitute old age; and that the path of promotion will be kept open for young teachers.

From the standpoint of the individual teacher, a sound retirement law means old-age protection at a cost that cannot be matched by a commercial insurance company. Such a system may be regarded as a straight business proposition that the teacher may accept without sacrifice of self-respect, and as an investment opportunity second to none. The profession gains from sound teacher retirement legislation, and under a properly written law the teacher's investment is as completely guaranteed as any investment can be. Consequently, both professional ethics and common sense dictate that the teacher lend support to the retirement program.

RELATED READINGS

Analysis of Local Provisions for Teacher Retirement, Research Bulletin, Vol. XVIII, No. 3. Washington: Research Division, National Education Association, May, 1940.

Analyzes the provisions for teacher retirement in 65 local systems, and points out the relationship between local and state retirement systems.

Cook, E. Albert, "Age Limit," *School and Society*, 54:565-67. December 13, 1941.

A story built around the value of retaining competent teachers who have reached retirement age.

Crawford, Will C., "Security for All Employees of the San Diego City Schools," *American School Board Journal*, 108:25-27. April, 1944.

The security provided for certified and noncertified employees of the San Diego public schools includes sick leave, old-age retirement, disability retirement, and death benefit options. The plan is described fully in this article.

Hodgdon, Daniel R., "Tenure and Retirement Work for Improvement of Teaching," *Clearing House*, 18:245-46. December, 1943.

Certain legal aspects of tenure and retirement are discussed and a number of cases cited involving tenure and retirement issues.

Kuenzli, Irwin R., "Teacher Retirement and Social Security," *American Teacher*, 29:18-19. December, 1944.

The American Federation of Teachers believes that Social Security can be extended to teachers without injuring existing teacher retirement systems.

Laws and Rules Governing the State Teachers' Retirement System, Sacramento, California: State Teachers' Retirement System, 1944.

Illustrates in detail the provisions of a state teachers' retirement system.

Reinhardt, Emma, "How to Make Teaching Attractive," *Journal of Education*, 127:155-157. May, 1944.

Points out that teaching can be made attractive if salaries are raised, reasonable tenure assured, and retirement allowances raised so as to permit the retired teacher to maintain a decent standard of living.

Rosenfield, Harry N., "How the Retirement Problem Looks Today," *Nation's Schools*, 32:31-32. November, 1943.

Reviews the legislative action taken in various states on retirement or pension systems. Deals with contributions, re-employed retired teachers, military service, coverage, eligibility requirements, benefits, social security, and the administration of retirement systems.

Statistics of State and Local Teacher Retirement Systems, 1943-44, Research Bulletin, Vol. XXIII, No. 2. Washington: Research Division, National Education Association, April, 1945.

This is the latest bulletin in a series published every five years, beginning in 1930, which presents statistical data concerning membership and financial information of local and state retirement systems.

Statutory Provisions for Statewide Retirement Systems, Research Division and National Council on Teacher Retirement. Washington: National Education Association, January, 1946.

A comprehensive digest of state retirement programs throughout the United States. Includes the financing of retirement plans, eligibility requirements, benefits, and the administration of state systems.

The Status of Teacher Retirement, Research Bulletin, Vol. XIX, No. 1. Washington: Research Division, National Education Association, January, 1941.

This bulletin was prepared for members of the teaching profession as a means of informing them about various aspects of teacher retirement systems at a time when amendments were proposed to the Social Security Act extending its benefits to teachers.

Part IV

INSTRUCTIONAL RESPONSIBILITIES

Chapter 10

WORKING WITH SUPERVISORS

IN ANY ELEMENTARY or secondary school, where democracy is part of daily living, the beginning teacher will find his principal source of inspiration and practical assistance in the co-operative work that he does with the supervisor. This is generally the case because the supervisor in such a school is there purposely to advise with the teacher, to instruct, to stimulate, and to guide him to the solution of his problems. In this respect, the relationship between the supervisor and the teacher is a friendly and constructive one based upon a mutual concern for all aspects of the instructional program. It is quite the opposite to the traditional, authoritarian approach of general oversight and inspection regarding the efficiency with which the teacher has carried out his orders. Supervision today may be considered as a service provided by the school for helping the teacher to become increasingly a better teacher, and through this improvement to do a more effective job of leadership in guiding the learning activities of pupils.

The beginning teacher will want to know about some of the more important features of a supervisory program in a modern elementary or secondary school. He will be interested in a brief history of how supervision developed, the functions it performs, how it is organized for service, the activities of the supervisor, the difference between supervision and administration, the procedures used for appraising the work of the teacher, and what his contribution can be to the improvement of supervision.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF SUPERVISION

Supervision of some kind has always existed in American schools, but it is only within the present century that the modern

conception has been formulated and supervision of instruction has become a specialized service. Today, the prospective teacher may look forward with certainty to some kind of supervision. In many instances, this service will be in agreement with modern theories and principles, but in a majority of cases this will not be true. Throughout the country there may be found examples of supervision, if the term is used generally, that would illustrate well each period or stage in the development of the supervisory idea, from the most rudimentary and unprofessional inspection of the early American school to the highly specialized and professionalized supervisory procedures of the modern city system.

Administrative Beginnings

In Massachusetts where publicly controlled schools made their appearance within a few years after the founding of the first New England colony, responsibility for the control of the local school remained for almost a hundred years in the hands of the people as a whole. The laws of 1642 and 1647 provided for the establishment of primary schools and grammar schools, but left all matters of administration to the people to handle as they saw fit. This meant that for many years the people in town meeting voted the establishment of their school, provided for its support, and elected the teacher. Under such conditions the teacher was responsible to no single individual, board, or committee. The general oversight of the school was the responsibility of all the people of the community, and, since "what is everybody's business is usually nobody's business," there was little or no administration or supervision. Any that might have existed would have come as a result of the initiative of the individual parent and would have been of the nature of an unskilled inspection or "check up" prompted largely by paternal interest or mere curiosity.

Early Delegation of Authority

In 1654 the Massachusetts colonial legislature directed the selectmen—councilmen or commissioners—of the towns to exer-

cise some supervision over the employment of the teacher, but it was not until about the beginning of the eighteenth century that the control of school affairs became of sufficient importance to warrant its partial removal from the hands of the people as a whole and the provision of some special oversight. Within 15 years after 1700, laws were passed in Massachusetts which provided that the teacher in the grammar school be examined and certified by a majority of the ministers of the town and the two adjoining towns, and that the teachers of the lower or elementary schools be similarly approved by the selectmen. In these laws there was evidence that school matters had become of sufficient importance, in certain respects at least, to warrant the attention of special committees. Moreover, there was some evidence of a feeling that the examination and certification of the teacher was a somewhat technical and specialized service, since it was in part placed in the charge of the ministers, who were usually the only members of the community who had received any considerable amount of formal education.

As schools increased in number and enrollments and their management became more complex, other responsibilities of school control were gradually removed from the people as a whole and assigned to special committees or boards. By 1800 the Massachusetts legislature had given legal recognition to these committees and had assigned to them the tasks of examination, certification, and employment of teachers, and the responsibility for visitation and inspection of schools. However, these committees were still composed of ministers or civil officials, and supervision was as yet little more than general oversight and inspection. There was as yet in neither theory nor practice any differentiation between general administration and supervision, as the latter term is now employed.

By the end of the first quarter of the nineteenth century, education was beginning to be recognized everywhere as a specialized function of the state and local communities, and special boards of school trustees were everywhere being empowered to certificate and appoint teachers, supervise their work, plan curricula and courses of study, select textbooks, oversee the erec-

tion, operation, and maintenance of buildings, and otherwise have general control of the schools. Teaching was gradually becoming recognized as a specialized service, and by the fourth decade of the century, the movement for professional preparation of teachers at public expense was under way. There is some evidence of the recognition at this time of the need for the improvement of the teacher in service, but as yet little could be done in the local community in the way of supervising the teacher with a definite view to improving learning conditions. Those responsible for the general oversight of the schools were handicapped by lack of training and could do little more than see that certain minimum essentials were provided. Standardization and a general increase in efficiency through state control and guidance were the outstanding accomplishments of the period.

Specialization in Supervision

As the administration of the schools became more and more complex and technical, committees and boards gradually began the practice of delegating to one member or to an appointed official the executive functions, retaining for the board as a whole the responsibility for the formulation of policies and for general legislation. Thus there came into existence the distinction between legislative functions and executive or administrative duties, and in answer to the demand for specialization in the latter field there appeared the office of superintendent and that of building principal.¹ City school systems may be said to have reached this stage of development by the last quarter of the nineteenth century.

Even with the appearance of these specialized school officers there was still little of supervision in the present-day meaning of the term. The intention was that these specially appointed officers should spend a considerable share of their time in the actual supervision of the work of the teacher with a view to providing an improved educational environment for the chil-

¹ The term *building principal* as used here refers to the elementary or high school principal in charge of a single school.

dren. However, the rapid expansion of school enrollments with the accompanying demand for new buildings and equipment, and the enormous increase in expenditures with the resulting business and financial responsibilities, forced the school administrators to give the greater part of their time to these aspects of administration. Routine and rapidly developing problems of general administration afforded little time for working directly on the improvement of instruction, and the teacher was left largely to his own devices. Supervision was still principally inspection, and such improvements as were being made in instructional conditions were largely the result of improved preservice preparation, better books and teaching supplies, improved buildings and equipment, longer school terms, and other external developments, rather than the improved quality of classroom supervision by the superintendent or principal.

Near the close of the last century special subjects, such as music, art, drawing, physical education, manual training, sewing, and cooking, began to make their appearance in the schools. As regular teachers were poorly equipped to handle these subjects, special teachers were called in to direct the work throughout a school or a system. Here was the first real demand for the specialized helping teacher or director of subject matter and method, and supervision began to take on a new meaning. Concurrently, it was being recognized that preservice training, even of the highest quality that could be provided, would never prove adequate. Always there was need for training the teacher on the job and for otherwise making provision for constantly improved learning conditions, not only in connection with the special subjects, but also in other parts of the curriculum. Gradually, cities tended to divide the general management of the school system into two rather distinct functions, and supervision became a specialized type of work distinct in theory, at least, from administration. Wherever it has proved economically feasible, the distinction has been made in practice, and general and special supervisors have been appointed. They have been given the sole responsibility for finding ways and means to improve instruction.

ORGANIZATION AND SUPERVISION

It was previously pointed out that every teacher may look forward to some sort of supervision. This is unquestionably true if the term is used rather loosely. Consequently, it is pertinent for the prospective teacher to ask who his supervisor will be, what kind of supervision he will receive, and how he may evaluate the service that he experiences.

Types of Supervisors

The majority of teaching positions are in rural schools or smaller towns and cities where special supervisors are usually not provided either because such provision is educationally not feasible or because of inadequate finance. Under these conditions the entire burden of supervision falls upon either the superintendent of schools or the building principal. It is probably safe to say that half of the teachers now employed in the United States do not, and will not, receive any large amount of supervision other than that provided by one or both of these administrator-supervisors. Though elementary supervisors are sometimes provided in rural schools for a county or other local school unit, and though rural communities may frequently provide helping teachers or teaching supervisors for special subjects such as music and art, the major responsibility for the supervision of instruction rests with superintendents and principals in most medium- and small-sized communities.²

Where special supervision is provided, it may be organized in many ways, both with respect to its general position in the educational organization and with respect to the type and scope of service rendered. In a city of thirty or forty thousand population, special supervision may be restricted to a single elementary supervisor responsible for the improvement of instruction in all of the elementary schools. Such a supervisor is presumed to be a specialist in the methodology, the subject matter, and the chil-

² The state supervisory system touches the average teacher so remotely as hardly to be worthy of consideration in this connection. It is almost entirely inspection rather than supervision and probably should be so named.

dren of the elementary school. His task is to assume primary responsibility for the improvement of instruction, thereby freeing a larger part of the time of the building principals and the superintendent for administrative work. In a still larger organization, two or more elementary supervisors may be employed and each assigned to a particular district or group of schools. Instead of regarding the entire elementary school as the supervisory unit, specialization in larger cities may be carried somewhat further by having kindergarten or primary supervisors for the lower division and intermediate supervisors for the upper level of the elementary school. Not infrequently the general administrative machinery provides for assistant superintendents who are primarily responsible for the co-ordination and supervision of instruction in a particular division of the system. Usually, under such a plan there will be one assistant superintendent responsible for the elementary instruction and another for instruction in the secondary schools. They are assisted in turn by elementary supervisors, department heads in high schools, and to some extent by principals.

Supervisors whose work is of the nature described in the preceding paragraph are commonly known as divisional or departmental supervisors as contrasted with subject supervisors. In the latter classification fall supervisors of art, music, penmanship, home economics, manual training, and physical education, and occasionally supervisors of traditional subjects such as arithmetic, reading, or the social studies. The work of these special subject supervisors may extend through the elementary school only or through both elementary and secondary schools. It may cover all schools in a system or a particular district or area.

Administrative and Supervisory Relationships

Types of relationships that may exist among administrative officers, supervisors, and teachers are diagrammatically presented in Figures 24, 25, and 26. In small school systems both elementary and high school teachers will in most situations have to depend for supervisory assistance on the superintendent and on the building principal. In larger systems supervisory aid may

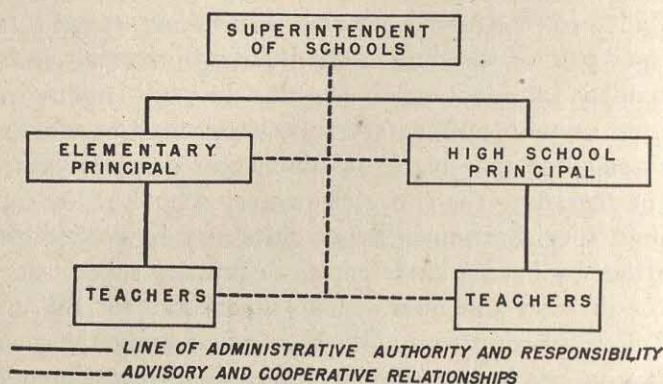


FIGURE 24. Supervisory Relationships in a Small School System. (There is no special supervisor provided. The superintendent and principals act as administrator-supervisors.)

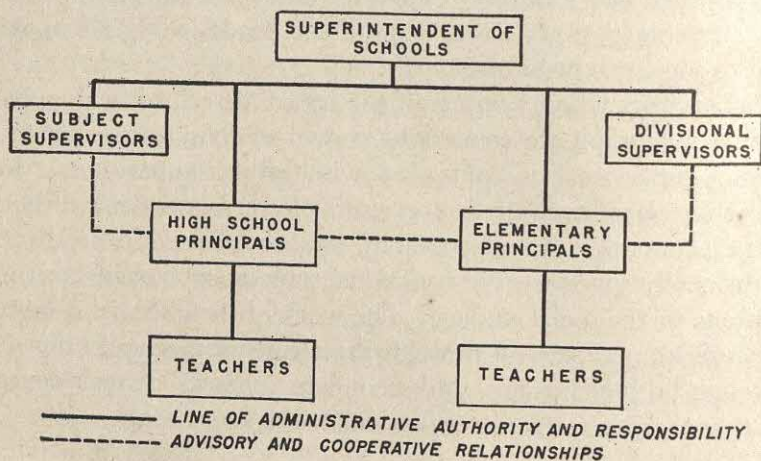


FIGURE 25. Supervisory Relationships in a School System Large Enough to Provide Subject Supervisors, Divisional Supervisors, or Both. (In a school system of this size, there would be a business department and possibly other special divisions. These have been omitted in order to simplify the diagram. In a system of this type the principals are not wholly administrative officers, but supplement the work of the special supervisors. On the other hand, the time of the superintendent will be almost entirely taken up with administrative duties.)

be rendered the elementary teacher by the building principal, divisional supervisors, and subject supervisors. High school teachers, in other than large systems where department heads are assigned supervisory duties, can expect little in the way of supervision other than that given by the superintendent or the high school principal. As a matter of fact, supervision in the

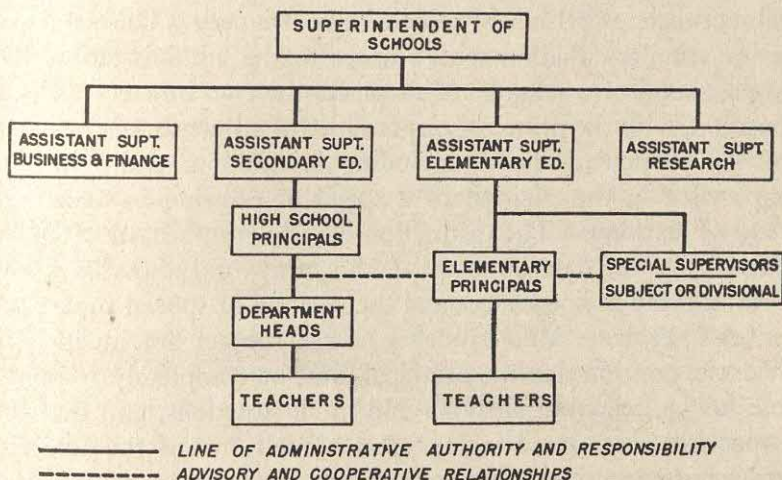


FIGURE 26. Supervisory Relationships in a City Large Enough to Employ Both Special Supervisors and Assistant Superintendents in Charge of Instruction. (The diagram presents one possible arrangement only. Cities vary so in their organizations that it is virtually impossible to portray a typical arrangement. In the organization shown there are three assistant superintendents, one of whom has no immediate responsibility for instruction. It will be observed that in a city of this size nearly all of the time of the principals is given to duties that are essentially administrative. Thus the responsibility for supervision is left largely to a special supervisory staff. The special supervisors responsible for the supervision of elementary instruction may be subject or divisional supervisors. In either case they are responsible to the superintendent through the assistant superintendent in charge of elementary education. High school supervision is cared for by the principal working through department heads.)

modern sense exists in the high schools of the United States largely in theory. In practice little has been accomplished.

Noting the relationships presented in Figures 25 and 26, the prospective teacher may be inclined to wonder about the divided responsibility that seems to appear when the special super-

visor is added to the organization. Is the teacher responsible to the building principal, to the supervisor, or to both? To whom is the supervisor immediately responsible, and what should be the relationship between the special supervisor and the building principal? In most situations the special supervisor is made directly responsible to the superintendent or an assistant superintendent for the improvement of instruction in the schools or subject-matter division to which he is assigned. The principal is in a similar situation with respect to the administration and organization of a school. This places the two in a co-ordinate position, with the principal responsible for all phases of the work of the particular school, including instruction, and with the supervisor in the position of a specialist assisting in a definite field of learning. The distinction has sometimes been made by employing the terminology of the army and describing the principalship as line service and the position of special supervisor as staff service. Most students of the subject are inclined to take the position that the principal must be completely responsible for his school at all times and in all situations, and that the supervisor must avoid taking upon himself any of the administrative or executive authority that rightfully belongs to the principal. Nor should he in any way disrupt or disorganize the machinery that the principal has set up for the control and operation of his school. Unless this is clearly understood, there is a real danger of conflict between the principal and the supervisor.

If conflict exists between the principal and the supervisor, it is impossible to lay down any general rule for the conduct of the teacher. However, he can aid materially in harmonizing differences by informing himself about the relationships that should exist, by clearly defining in his own mind his responsibilities to both the principal and the supervisor, and by giving the fullest possible measure of co-operation to both at all times.

ADMINISTRATION AND SUPERVISION

In view of the previous discussion, it would seem pertinent for the teacher to understand clearly the difference between administration and supervision. It will be recalled that in the earlier

development of schools, activities directed toward the immediate improvement of instruction were largely neglected or confused with the routine management of schools. Gradually, however, supervisory activities received recognition and were set apart as a special type of service, particularly in the large school systems where specialists were employed exclusively for supervisory work. But this was not the case in small school systems for practical and financial reasons, with the result that both administrative and supervisory responsibilities were continued in the same individual or individuals without the benefit of any clear line of distinction.

The difference between administration and supervision is one of function. A superintendent or principal may conceivably hold a teachers' meeting which is primarily administrative, primarily supervisory, or which represents a fairly even balance between the two. Likewise, a visit might be made to a classroom for supervisory purposes, for administrative purposes, or for both. The activity is administrative or supervisory not in terms of what is done, or of the individual who does it, but in terms of the reason for its performance. It is the failure of the superintendent or principal to make this distinction that results in many of the ineffective procedures that are carried on under the guise of supervision, and it is the failure on the part of the teacher to make the same distinction that in a large measure prevents intelligent evaluation of procedures and intelligent co-operation in improving the quality of supervisory service.

Much criticism, for example, has been directed toward the superintendent or principal who makes a hasty visit to a classroom, takes a few notes, and thereafter apparently does nothing further about the visit. Does such a procedure deserve criticism? The answer, it would seem, depends entirely on what the administrator-supervisor thinks he is trying to do. Is he on an administrative errand or is he attempting to supervise? Certainly there is nothing wrong with his procedure if it accomplishes in an efficient manner the end he has in view. Why should he not follow such a procedure if he is interested only in an administrative rating of the teacher to help settle the question

of a contemplated dismissal, or to determine whether or not the teacher deserves a merit rating that will give him a higher position in the salary schedule? What is wrong with such a procedure if the object of the visit is to check the janitor service? There are several activities that have come to be almost universally regarded as supervisory procedures—classroom visits and teachers' meetings in particular—when they may, as a matter of fact, be performed for purposes other than supervision. It follows that the only fair basis for evaluating the effectiveness of such procedures is the purpose that they are supposed to serve. If the superintendent or principal habitually makes the kind of visit referred to above under the impression that he is supervising, he no doubt deserves criticism, for he could not by such a procedure produce any substantial or permanent improvement in learning conditions. The teacher and pupils might be temporarily stimulated, but any gain of this kind is usually more than offset by the worry and ill feeling usually generated by such sham supervision.

All administrative and supervisory efforts have as their ultimate objectives the best possible learning conditions for the pupils. Supervision, as a special type of service, is distinctive in that its immediate purpose is the improvement of instruction. It touches the teacher, the learning conditions, and the child directly. Administrative functions have the same goal, but only remotely. The preparation of the budget, the planning of a school building, the selection and employment of teachers, and financial accounting all have as their final objective the most effective learning on the part of the pupil. This objective is secondary or even more remote in actual performance, however, and few would hesitate to classify them immediately as administrative tasks. On the other hand, the rating of a teacher with a diagnostic scale, demonstration teaching, and the classroom visit followed by a conference between the visitor and the teacher all appear to have as their immediate and direct purpose the improvement of instruction, and would almost invariably be classed as supervisory activities. However, all tasks cannot be thus catalogued. A testing program may be of a supervisory nature

or primarily administrative depending on a number of factors—the kinds of tests used, the purpose of the testing, and the use made of the test results. A teachers' meeting may, if certain things are done, be definitely classified as a supervisory procedure. If certain other things are done, it may properly be labeled an administrative activity. In still another situation, it might conceivably be classified as both an administrative and a supervisory meeting. In any case, the distinction lies in the purpose and the accomplishment rather than the general character of the activity itself.

THE FUNCTION OF THE SUPERVISOR

If the activities of school administrators and supervisors can be fairly evaluated only in terms of function or purpose, it is proper that the prospective teacher recognize in general and in some detail what it is that the administrator-supervisor or the special supervisor is supposed to accomplish. An answer to such a query is not difficult to give in general terms. It is the business of the supervisor to work with the teacher on those projects which will most immediately and directly improve learning conditions for the children. As previously implied, the one to be benefited by supervision, or by all school procedures for that matter, is in the last analysis the child. Any properly trained teacher would, if left to his own resources, produce certain desirable changes in the children instructed. The degree to which these desirable gains are increased by the co-operation of the teacher with a supervisor is the real measure of the effectiveness of the work of the latter. The purposes of education are certain knowledges, habits, attitudes, ideals, and appreciations on the part of the child. Those things that will directly facilitate the accomplishment of desirable ends of these kinds are legitimate activities of the supervisor. Obviously, when such an interpretation is employed, supervision is not limited to a few stereotyped procedures. It may include teachers' meetings of a certain type, classroom visitations, and personal conferences. All of these activities are important, but they are limited aspects of a total program designed to further the growth and develop-

ment of the teacher, and through such a process to fulfill the functions of supervision. Among other functions that the supervisor may have in mind are (1) getting teachers to define and use the purposes of education as dynamic forces in their work with pupils, (2) helping teachers to evaluate the effectiveness of instruction, (3) developing in teachers a growing recognition of the factors that affect learning, and (4) working with them co-operatively to eliminate weaknesses in the teacher-learner situation.

Defining Purposes

Unless teachers have a clear, definite understanding of the purposes for which they are teaching, it is useless to expect the results we would like in American education. Teaching involves much more than covering so much material in a semester or a school year, making assignments, hearing recitations, giving examinations, and issuing grades. Nor do the vague generalizations used to justify what is being taught make any contribution to the real purposes of education. A social studies teacher may claim that his purpose is to teach citizenship, the English teacher may state that appreciation of literature is an end that he seeks, whereas the science teacher talks about the development of scientific attitudes. Statements like these mean very little unless they have been broken down into carefully defined descriptions of how pupils think and act who are good citizens, appreciate literature, or approach problems in a scientific manner. Moreover, these general statements bear little relationship as a rule to the curriculum itself—its organization, materials, and methods.

It is apparent to any critical observer that competent teachers know exactly what they want to accomplish with pupils. Their purposes are usually expressed in terms of certain desirable changes in the thinking and behavior of children, to an extent that these changes become an integral part of their daily living. Unfortunately, preservice preparation alone, even of the highest type, rarely produces a teacher who thinks of teaching in terms of behavior changes in pupils. It is here that the supervisor enters the picture as a person who is qualified to help the begin-

ning teacher straighten out the lines of his thinking and point his efforts consistently in a given direction. Without this aid, it is quite possible that a new teacher could continue for some years without knowing exactly what he was teaching for and how his purposes might be accomplished.

Evaluating Instruction

Before learning can be greatly improved, it is necessary that the teacher be able to determine how closely he has come to the realization of his purposes. The evaluation of instruction will tell the teacher the degree to which he has approximated his goals, the effectiveness of the materials and activities used, and the value of the conditions under which learning has taken place. Knowing what he is looking for in his evaluation of the learning process, the teacher will select methods and techniques that yield the evidence upon which his judgments are based. He may use tests and measuring devices constructed in terms of his purposes, anecdotal records of pupil behavior, recorded observations of individuals and groups of individuals, inventory analyses of pupil achievement, and several other means for securing pertinent information. To do this, however, is not an easy task: the concepts and skills involved may be beyond the understanding and ability of the teacher. Under these conditions, it is a primary responsibility of the supervisor to render the kind of assistance to the teacher that will make it possible for him to determine how nearly the learning process is producing the desired educational results.

Analyzing Learning Conditions

When the teacher has a fairly precise knowledge of what he is attempting to do, and when he is able to determine how nearly he has approximated his purposes, the way is then open to analyze strengths and weaknesses in the methods and materials of instruction. He will want to find out, for example, why certain pupils showed little evidence of change and whether this failure is related to the methods and materials used by the teacher and the pupil. Perhaps the teacher may discover that he is thinking

more in terms of subject matter than of pupils' activities and pupil growth. Or it may be that he has little or nothing available in the way of supplementary books and materials suitable for meeting the needs and interests of the pupil. His failure may be in the lack of planning with pupils the definite procedures to be followed in assimilating certain material or in attacking the problem of a unit.

However, the difficulty may be elsewhere; he may be using unsatisfactory methods of evaluating pupil progress. Such tests as are used may be emphasizing subject matter at the expense of more important things, and they may lack other qualities that make them reliable measures of growth. The teacher may likewise lack the knowledge of how to analyze test results and by such analysis improve his measuring instruments. He may have mistaken ideas about marks and marking, particularly with respect to their meaning and use. In numerous other ways, errors in judgment, lack of knowledge, or indifference in matters of measurement and marking may constitute the source of the general lack of efficiency that has been disclosed.

The unsatisfactory showing of pupil or a class may have its cause or causes in the personality of the teacher. Here may be involved appearance, personal habits, dress, voice, disposition, and a number of other factors. A personality deficiency alone, or together with inadequate training and lack of judgment, may make impossible effective pupil control and discipline. The teacher may also neglect the physical conditions of the classroom, and may overlook entirely the relationship between the health and physical welfare of individuals and their achievement in school. The difficulty may reside in a lack of ability in the more fundamental techniques of teaching—teacher-pupil planning, directing study, questioning, encouraging pupils and motivating work. There may be a lack of knowledge of any type of lesson other than the traditional question and answer procedure. Individual differences may be ignored because of inability or unwillingness to see solutions to the problems presented by such differences. Finally, the teacher may lack an adequate

knowledge of the subject matter with which he is attempting to work.

In considerations like these may be located the causes of unsatisfactory learning conditions and a relatively inferior educational product. Although the energetic and enthusiastic teacher can and will locate many weaknesses for himself, he is likely to be handicapped by inadequate preparation, lack of experience, and inaccuracies in judgment. He needs the guidance of a person of wider training and experience to help him. The provision of this guidance is one major function of the supervisor.

SUPERVISORY PROCEDURES

From the foregoing discussion, it should be easy for the prospective teacher to infer the procedures and devices that may be employed by the capable supervisor. Obviously, they will not be limited to the traditional classroom visit and the teachers' meeting. The supervisor will work with the teacher on whatever problems are most in need of attention. The work may be largely individual or it may involve all teachers in a building or all those responsible for a particular division or department of work. The time of the supervisor will be distributed among the teachers according to their needs and not according to some predetermined schedule. Likewise, the supervisor's time will be distributed among different activities in accordance with the needs of the group he is serving.

No list of procedures can be presented that will include in detail all the activities in which the supervisor might engage, but it is possible to enumerate some that are most commonly employed. Under capable supervision the teacher may expect that assistance will be rendered through such procedures as the following:

- A. Helping the individual teacher or groups of teachers to plan and carry forward out-of-class projects that have as their direct purpose the improvement of learning conditions.
 1. Planning testing programs and constructing tests.
 2. Analyzing test results and planning remedial procedures.

3. Writing a philosophy of education.
 4. Engaging in curriculum study.
 5. Collecting supplementary materials.
 6. Preparing reading lists.
 7. Initiating and developing promotional plans with a view to improved pupil progress.
 8. Planning and initiating instructional procedures designed to center attention on individual differences.
 9. Encouraging and planning visits among teachers for purposes of observation.
 10. Utilizing community resources.
 11. Studying American life as a means for enriching classroom living.
 12. Organizing workshops for the study of special problems.
 13. Carrying on systematic study of a particular child or group of children.
 14. Developing a practical system of keeping and using anecdotal records.
 15. Undertaking special projects in the use of visual and auditory aids to learning.
- B. Working with the teacher in the classroom.
1. Observing work with a view to discovering opportunities for improvement.
 2. Checking physical conditions in the classroom.
 3. Analyzing pupil needs, interests, and purposes.
 4. Rating the teacher with some special device for diagnostic purposes.
 5. Teaching demonstration lessons.
 6. Directing the use of supplementary materials and other teaching aids.
 7. Initiating special investigations or experiments.
 8. Helping teachers to use various means for evaluating instruction.
 9. Solving problems of pupil classification.
 10. Making suggestions to teachers regarding new devices and methods, supplementary aids, economy of time, physical conditions of the classroom, pupil control, adapting methods to pupil differences, and so on.
 11. Trying out various experimental approaches to problems of learning.

12. Utilizing research findings.
- C. Working with the teacher in conferences and meetings.
 1. Holding conferences with the individual teacher. (Such conferences will for the most part be the result of the classroom visits and observations and will involve consideration of the teacher's weak and strong points and opportunities for improvement.)
 2. Holding teachers' meetings for consideration of major instructional problems. (These meetings will deal with questions that are of general interest rather than with the needs of the individual teachers.)
- D. Working with the teacher on out-of-school activities.
 1. Encouraging teachers to attend professional meetings.
 2. Suggesting professional reading for teachers.
 3. Recommending study plans and course selections for teachers who are taking additional training.

Supervisory activities can be classified in many ways and in much greater detail than the preceding arrangement. However, no list or classification will be likely to give the prospective teacher a complete picture of the supervisor's job. At any rate, it is to be hoped that the work will never be standardized to that degree. The primary idea to be borne in mind by the teacher is that it is not the number or the nature of the procedures employed by the supervisor that is of first importance. In supervision, as in most types of endeavor, the thing that counts is the result. To a certain extent the teacher can rightly evaluate the work of the supervisor in terms of what he does, but more important than the things done are the manner in which they are done and the results achieved.

THE APPRAISAL OF TEACHING

The beginning teacher can look forward, in most school systems, to some appraisal of his work either for supervisory or for administrative purposes, or for both. From a supervisory standpoint, teaching is analyzed and judged in order to find out the quality of the teaching being done, and at what points remedial measures are needed in order to insure improvement. Adminis-

tratively, the appraisal of teaching is related to questions involving tenure and dismissal, promotions, salary, and merit rating. Since a single measure of teaching efficiency may conceivably be administrative and supervisory, the distinction is one of purpose rather than one of general procedure. This is a point of emphasis which the teacher should be aware of, if he is to evaluate fairly the supervisory instruments or methods employed.

In general, there are three principal types of appraisal made by administrators and supervisors. They are (1) the method of personal estimate or subjective judgment, (2) the teacher rating scale or score card, and (3) the evaluation of pupil progress.

Subjective Judgment

It has been only within the present century that methods other than personal estimate or subjective judgment have been employed in the measurement of teaching efficiency, and this general procedure is still, no doubt, more frequently used than all other procedures combined. But it is somewhat misleading to describe the use of subjective judgment as a method, since the individual who makes this kind of estimate can rarely offer any very clear description of the procedure to be followed. Perhaps, it could be better described as a lack of method. A rating of a teacher or learning situation of this kind is in most cases rendered in the same fashion that we casually pass judgment on other matters. This person has an attractive personality; that one has not. A splendid character, a good mixer, a charming hostess, a fine speaker, or an able doctor are all examples of the kind of subjective estimates of individuals that most of us make. Rarely are they based on any conscious analysis, and we find it difficult to explain just how we arrive at our conclusions. A variety of things may be involved in a judgment or it may be largely the result of a single event or impression. In any case, a sort of halo effect has survived and, in terms of that effect, we appraise the individual.

The same thing is essentially true of teacher ratings based on personal estimate or subjective judgment. The teacher is pronounced superior, good, average, fair, or a failure without any

very thorough analysis of the reasons for the estimate. In some instances the judgment is a highly accurate one for, either by chance or as a result of much experience, all important factors are given consideration and each is assigned the approximate emphasis it deserves. More frequently, however, the judgment is likely to be colored by some particular trait or activity which unduly influences the decision. For example, an administrator may be keenly interested in problems of schoolroom ventilation and lighting and, as a result, may watch carefully the physical conditions maintained in the classrooms of his building or school system. In a particular instance he finds a teacher who is exceedingly careless about such matters. This teacher keeps the temperature of the room much higher than is necessary or desirable and shows little knowledge or judgment in controlling natural and artificial lighting. These things are important, of course, and the teacher deserves some condemnation for not caring for them more effectively, but because of his special interest in this aspect of the teaching situation the administrator assigns it a weight in his general estimate of the teacher that is out of all proportion to its importance. Likewise, the teacher's personality, dress, or voice, his ability to discipline a class, his knowledge of subject matter, or other aspects of classroom management may receive too much emphasis and produce a halo effect that governs the entire estimate without the rater's being aware of the fact. The judgment may even be influenced by the amount of preparation, the number of years of experience, and the general reputation that the teacher may have built up under a different administration.

Finally, a rating of this nature is particularly susceptible to the whims and moods of the person doing the rating. On certain days a performance of a teacher is almost certain to receive a relatively low rating. The same performance may on another day be rated much higher because the rater is feeling particularly well, because he is, for the time, relatively free from worry, because he has himself been complimented on the way in which he is handling his work, or for a number of other irrelevant reasons.

The experienced person or one who labors conscientiously to

take all factors into consideration and to give each its proper emphasis may, in a majority of cases, be able to render personal estimates of teaching efficiency which are sufficiently accurate for practical purposes. These more capable individuals are usually the ones who have the least faith in their personal judgment of teaching efficiency and who are constantly seeking measures that are more objective, more valid, and more reliable.

Teacher-Rating Scales

The teacher-rating scale or score card has been one result of the search for a method of measuring teaching efficiency that would be more satisfactory than ordinary subjective judgment. This device represents a single aspect of the general movement in education for more effective measurement, and seeks to do for this phase of school work what the standardized test is designed to do in the measurement of certain kinds of pupil ability and achievement. An example from the field of physical measurements will illustrate the point. Suppose that you gave to each of your fellow students an accurately constructed yardstick with instructions to measure the length of a particular room. What would be the result? With a reasonably careful application, the instrument will measure what it is supposed to measure and nothing else; it will be independent of the measurer. If a little care is taken, each of the students will obtain almost precisely the same results. Finally, a second measure by the same student the next day or even weeks later would give a result almost exactly the same as that obtained the first time. The measure is not perfect in a technical sense, but for all practical purposes it is. It measures what it is supposed to measure, measures it accurately, and is free from the subjective influences of the measurer.

Hundreds of teacher-rating scales or score cards have been developed in recent years. Some have been much better than others, but all represent a single approach to the problem of getting some measure for appraising teaching efficiency. The general method followed in constructing these instruments is to list a series of traits, characteristics, or standards upon which the

rating is to be made. These may relate to the teacher and his activities, the pupil and his reactions, or other aspects of the learning situation. In Figure 27, for example the rating is given on eight traits of the teacher, each of which is essentially personal. The scale implies that what the teacher is, is a measure of what he can accomplish.

Each individual who attempts the construction of a score card or a rating scale incorporates in it those traits, activities, and standards that will, in his opinion, best reflect the efficiency of the work being done. As a result, a wide range of traits, activities, and standards are found in typical score cards and rating scales. Included among them are such items as classroom management, personal habits, discipline, appearance, use of English, preparation, skill in questioning, attention to individual differences, motivation, and a host of others too numerous to mention here.

The next step after the selection of the traits, qualities, or activities to be rated is the setting up of a numerical or descriptive scale by means of which each item may be graded. In Figure 27 the teacher is to be rated on each of the eight characteristics as lowest, low, average, high, or highest. In other scales a numerical rating may be provided and, for the guidance of the rater, the numerical scores are interpreted as meaning far above average, above average, below average, and far below average. Usually the individual scores on each item are combined into a final score or numerical rating. The technique is used likewise of assigning values ranging from one to five with the low score representing the high rating. A line connecting the points assigned the various items furnishes a profile of the teacher's work as measured by the scale. A copy of such a profile is shown in Figure 28.

In the opinion of many supervisors, the application of the rating scale by the teacher himself represents the most effective use of this device where the immediate objective is the improvement of instruction. If there is a sincere desire on the part of the teacher to discover and eliminate the weaknesses in the learning conditions that he is helping to provide, he will recognize the value of a systematized approach to the problem and will wel-

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come any device that will guide him in making the necessary analysis and diagnosis. Moreover, if there is a definite understanding that the results are to be employed solely for supervisory purposes, he has no reason to be concerned about the effect of

TEMPLE UNIVERSITY			REPORT ON STUDENT TEACHER		TEACHERS COLLEGE	
Student Teacher	Class	School	Critic Teacher			
Subject Taught	Size	Grade				
			Undergraduate College			
			Major		Minor	

INSTRUCTIONS- Please check the appropriate square in each of the four composite divisions given below. Consider as many of the traits as you feel competent to evaluate. Extensive comments in the spaces provided will be especially helpful in guiding the student teacher, and for purposes of future recommendations.

	Superior	Better than Average	Average	Below Average	Inadequate
(1) <u>PERSONAL EQUIPMENT</u>					
Include in this composite such factors as appearance, voice, speech, physical and emotional health and control, poise, enthusiasm, optimism, cooperativeness, patience, courtesy, tact, reliability, resourcefulness, initiative, intelligence, leadership, foresight, good humor, promptness, helpfulness, originality, sympathy and kindness; judgment, adaptability, honesty, fairness, attitude toward criticism, and the like.					
Comments: _____					

	Superior	Better than Average	Average	Below Average	Inadequate
(2) <u>PROFESSIONAL EQUIPMENT</u>					
Include consideration of cultural and social background, scholarship, knowledge of subject matter and of teaching methods, professional attitude and philosophy, versatility, understanding and interest in adolescents.					
Comments: _____					

FIGURE 27. Rating Scale Used in the Division of Secondary Education, Teachers College, Temple University, Philadelphia, Pa.

the findings on his position or salary. Under such conditions he can enter wholeheartedly into a program of self-rating. His self-estimate may not always be highly reliable, but he can hardly avoid improving himself as a result of a serious study of his

-2-

	Superior	Better than Average	Average	Below Average	Inadequate
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(3) TEACHING ABILITY-

Consider appropriateness of aims, teaching materials and of methods employed, as well as effectiveness of assignment, lesson plan, motivation, questioning, illustrations, reviews, drills, study guidance, etc. To what extent are individual differences met? How effective is the guidance provided? How efficient is routine, use of equipment such as blackboards, texts, bulletin boards, apparatus, collateral texts, visual aids and supplementary materials. Organization of teaching materials? Use of specific procedures in developing skills, appreciations and understandings?

Comments: _____

	Superior	Better than Average	Average	Below Average	Inadequate
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(4) RESULTS SECURED-

Mention such items as pupil participation, purposefulness, initiative, variety and quality of interest, self-reliance and academic achievement exhibited by pupils. Consider general attitude and cooperativeness of pupils. In what areas has he shown greatest competence?

Comments: _____

SUMMARY STATEMENTS- (Include concise and specific summary of outstanding strengths and weaknesses. Indicate your prognosis of the student teacher's success in the profession, and your recommendations of the grade level for which he is best suited.)

Date _____ Signature of Supervisor _____

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FIGURE 27—continued.

teaching in the light of such standards as are found in a well-constructed score card or rating scale.

Obviously, teacher-rating scales and score cards have many shortcomings. Particularly is there danger that in the hands of unskilled users they will be misapplied or the results will be misinterpreted. Moreover, it is highly debatable whether or not

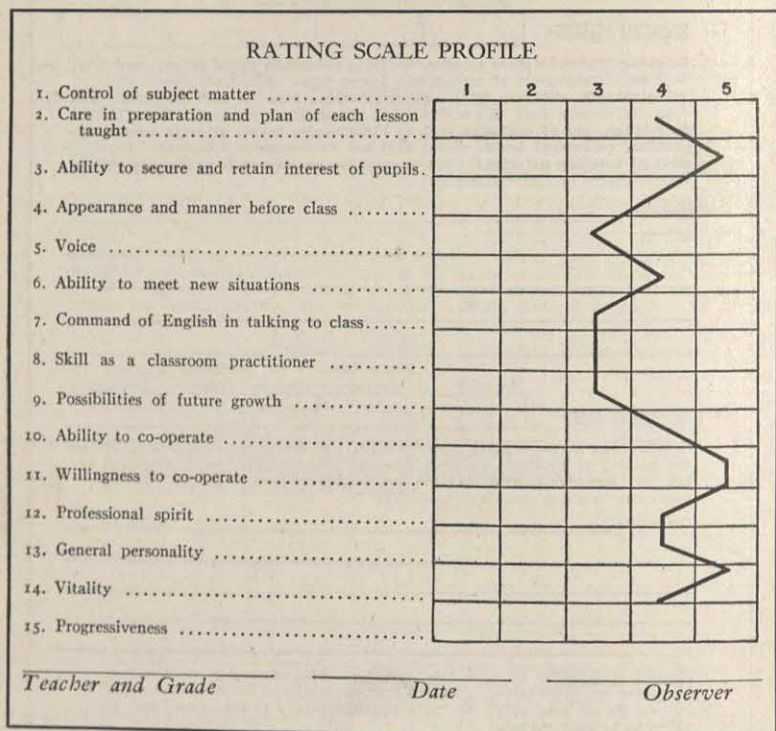


FIGURE 28. A Profile Showing the Supervisor's Rating of a Teacher

we shall ever devise a very satisfactory instrument for appraising teaching efficiency by continuing our efforts in that direction. The basis for such appraisal should be the nature and extent of the change effected in the learner not the traits and activities of the teacher or the externals of the teaching situation. On the other hand, a properly constructed teacher-rating scale, intelligently applied, is a decided improvement over ordinary subjec-

tive judgement. It tends to eliminate bias and to promote a fair distribution of emphasis. It possesses value both as an administrative and as a supervisory instrument, but is unquestionably of larger importance in the latter capacity. It makes its greatest contribution as a check list and not as a scoring instrument.

The Evaluation of Pupil Progress

In the evaluation of learning an effort is made to determine the nature of the changes that have taken place in the thinking and behavior of pupils, and the extent to which these changes approximate the purposes of the instructional program. Evaluation may include the administration of specially devised tests for measuring specific kinds of learning that have taken place. For example, the assumption is made that at the beginning of any particular school year or term a pupil starts with a certain knowledge or skill in a particular subject—arithmetic, let us say—and that the progress he makes throughout the year will depend primarily upon three factors. These factors are the nature and extent of his present knowledge and skill, his general mental ability, and the quality of the instruction he receives. By controlling the first two factors, a measure of the third is possible for judging the efficiency of the teacher.

To illustrate the procedure for measuring the effectiveness with which a particular teacher instructs a class in arithmetic, the first step would be to give to the members of the class at the beginning of the year a standardized achievement test in arithmetic and a standardized mental or intelligence test. From the first measure we would derive, by means of the norms provided with the test, an arithmetic age for each child and an average or median arithmetic age for the class. From the mental test we would obtain a mental age for each child and an average or median age for the class. The arithmetic age is a measure of what the child knows of arithmetic or can do in arithmetic, and the mental age is a measure of what he is capable of knowing or of doing.

The next step would be to obtain for the group an achievement quotient by dividing the arithmetic age by the mental age.

This quotient would be one, less than one, or greater than one. It would reflect the achievement of the group in terms of its ability at the time the teacher began his work. Suppose that the average arithmetic age of the group was 10 years and 6 months and the average mental age was 11 years and 2 months. The achievement quotient then would be 0.94 since 126 months divided by 134 months gives that answer. This would mean that the class, previous to the time the tests were taken, had not achieved in arithmetic up to its ability as measured by the test, and that the efficiency of the teacher will be evident if he is able to improve this ratio by the close of the school term or year when a similar procedure of testing is followed and a second achievement quotient is determined. If the difference between the first and second achievement quotients is zero, the teacher is classified as typically efficient. However, if the end quotient is larger, the teacher is presumed to have done better than average work.

Where a measure of general teaching efficiency is desired, the same procedure is followed for all subjects for which standardized tests are available. The measure of general efficiency is then obtained by adding algebraically the series of differences obtained and dividing by the number of subjects. The differences indicate the subjects in which the teacher is doing the poorest and best work.

To anyone who has not given time to the study of educational measurements, this method may appear to be a satisfactory way of determining teaching efficiency. The fact is, however, that it has many shortcomings and disadvantages. No series of measuring instruments has been devised which covers the entire field of learning. Most standardized tests are restricted to measures of knowledge and skill, with a consequent neglect of many intangible factors that contribute to the total growth and development of the individual. Fortunately, an advance has been made in this direction through tests developed in connection with the Eight Year Study of the Progressive Education Association. These tests yield measures of growth in such areas as the ability of pupils to apply the principles of general science, biology, and physical science to new situations; the ability of pupils to apply

various generalizations expressing social values to controversial social problems; the beliefs that pupils hold toward certain aspects of school life; the ability of the pupil to draw conclusions or to make interpretations from data related to social and natural sciences; the ability of pupils to apply certain important principles of logical reasoning in appropriate situations; and, in the test on the nature of proof, the ability of pupils to analyze arguments and to judge the soundness of conclusions based on these arguments.

Another disadvantage of measurement as a method of evaluating teaching efficiency should be pointed out. If measurement is to be even fairly accurate, the conditions under which learning takes place would have to be controlled. Such factors as supplies and equipment, size of teaching load, nature of supervision, time allocated to teaching, help received outside of school, and the like, affect the learning process and either assist or retard the work of the teacher. This does not mean that measurement does not have a place in evaluating teaching efficiency—its value lies in what it suggests rather than what it actually accomplishes.

The use of tests in combination with some of the newer techniques of evaluation enables the supervisor to get a fairly broad and accurate estimate of how teaching is influencing the rate of growth and development in pupils. Some of these newer evaluation techniques would include check lists for both teachers and pupils, reports and records of pupil progress, selected samples of pupil behavior, questionnaire studies, inventories of pupil interests, analyses of pupil work, various types of rating scales, and other means for securing evidence upon which the supervisor and the teacher could base their judgments. Although evaluative procedures of this kind lack accuracy in measuring pupil growth, they offer nevertheless a more wholesome approach to the problem than is found within the limits of the testing field.

THE IMPROVEMENT OF SUPERVISION

In the majority of schools the quality of supervision given to teachers by principals and superintendents is exceedingly poor. There are several reasons why these administrator-supervisors

fail to perform efficiently this important aspect of their work. In the first place, they are not trained for the work. Many have had no professional preparation other than a few general courses in education, and those who have given time to the study of school management and control have concentrated on the administrative rather than the supervisory aspects of the job. As a consequence, schools and school systems by the hundreds are headed by principals and superintendents whose major qualification for supervising instruction is their knowledge that such work is supposed to be one of their principal functions. They have the narrow traditional view of supervision and place great emphasis on inspection and negative criticism. Their procedures are limited to routine classroom visits without any sort of follow-up, and to teachers' meetings which are essentially administrative in nature and which arouse little interest among teachers.

A second cause of the poor supervisory results obtained by principals and superintendents is the small amount of time devoted to the work. Most of them recognize in theory that activities directly associated with the improvement of instruction should occupy a major portion of their time, but they fail to translate their theories into practice. Many studies have been made of the manner in which principals and superintendents distribute their time, and frequently tentative standards have been advanced as guides to these officers in planning their work. Just what per cent of the time of any individual principal or superintendent should be devoted to supervision cannot be recommended. The decision would depend on the size of the school or system, on many peculiar conditions, and on the need for supervision. Suffice it to say that most students of education take the position that principals and superintendents should give more time than they do to the direct improvement of learning.

The failure of these officials to give sufficient time to supervision is understandable. Some do not appreciate the significance of this phase of their work and therefore see no reason why they should devote more effort to it. Many are overburdened with tasks of other kinds and find no time for constructive super-

visory activities. Building principals are frequently assigned heavy teaching loads, and superintendents in small systems often find themselves in a similar situation. The business and financial aspects of school administration and office routine represent a heavy burden, which must be borne entirely by these administrator-supervisors unless clerical and administrative assistance is provided. However, even under the adverse conditions that so frequently prevail, much could be accomplished if other difficulties were not involved. The average principal or superintendent, if crowded for time, will almost always neglect the supervisory phases of his work rather than the administrative. He gives the time to the administrative work and office routine because he is better trained for those phases and because they are easier. Constructive supervision requires training, vision, enthusiasm, and hard work. Finally, it is difficult or next to impossible for the taxpayer and school patron to detect the failure in supervisory work. In fact, hundreds of teachers are incapable of evaluating the efforts of their principals and superintendents in this direction. The same thing is not true for administration and the routine of school control. Failure in these latter functions is quickly detected by the teachers and those outside the school. Principals and superintendents know these facts and look first to those responsibilities upon which security of position depends.

More and better supervision will be provided teachers when principals, superintendents, and special supervisors are more thoroughly trained for this phase of school work. Improved conditions will also result when the value of supervision is recognized fully by school boards and the public; then ample time for such work will be given and officials will be held responsible for the proper performance of their supervisory duties. Equally as necessary to improvements in this direction, however, is the cooperation of the classroom teacher. He should know what to expect in the way of supervision and he should know how to evaluate the aid that he receives. Thus prepared he has an obligation to himself, the profession, and the child he serves, to seek from those designated as supervisors the type of constructive

assistance that will produce constantly improved learning conditions. He will get something other than routine inspection and sham supervision whenever he makes it clear to those in authority that he expects and wants assistance of another kind.

RELATED READINGS

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Coleman, Elsie, "The 'Supervisory Visit,'" *Educational Leadership*, 2:164-167. January, 1945.

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This book was prepared for the Commission on Teacher Education by two of the field co-ordinators on the staff of the Commission. It is a report of the activities carried on in several school systems participating in the study.

Recognition and Evaluation of Teacher Growth in Service, Lansing, Michigan: Michigan State Board of Education, The Michigan Cooperative Teacher Education Study, 1942.

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This is one of the volumes prepared for the Commission on Teacher Education. It contains several chapters pertinent to the field of supervision, and is especially valuable for the description of programs carried on by schools participating in the study.

Chapter 11

IMPROVING THE CURRICULUM

IT WAS POINTED out in the preceding chapter that supervision is a service provided by schools for helping teachers to become increasingly more competent in guiding the learning activities of pupils. An important aspect of this service, in current educational practice, concerns the improvement of the curriculum. Schools throughout the country are engaged in curriculum study and curriculum experimentation to an extent never before equaled in this nation. Wherever curriculum projects are under way, teachers are taking a significant part in the work being done. They have replaced, for the most part, the specialists who were employed formerly to develop and prepare the curriculums and courses of study followed by teachers in classroom instruction. Because of the change that has taken place, both in the theory and the practice of curriculum development, it is highly desirable for the beginning teacher to understand the nature of the curriculum, what influences shape its character, various types of curriculum patterns, curriculum construction procedures, and his role in the program for curriculum improvement.

THE NATURE OF THE CURRICULUM

Several points of view are found in contemporary educational thought regarding the nature of the curriculum. Some differences in these points of view may be illustrated in the meaning of the terms "curriculum" and "course of study." Conventionally, the curriculum is interpreted to mean a particular arrangement of subject matter set out to be learned by the child. It includes a statement of the aims of education at a given level and for the

particular children for whom it is designed, the experiences and activities thought to be necessary to the accomplishment of these aims, and the materials of instruction selected with the view to making possible the desired experiences and activities. These materials of instruction in practice are almost always stated in terms of school subjects—mathematics, English, social studies, and so forth. According to this definition, there is but a single curriculum for the elementary school, since the general purposes of education at this level are the same for all children enrolled. On the other hand, two or more different curriculums may be prepared for a high school as means of meeting the specialized needs of two or more groups of students, hence a college preparatory curriculum, a commercial curriculum, an industrial curriculum, and an agricultural curriculum. Each would have certain rather specific purposes in addition to the more general aims of secondary education.

This conception of the curriculum is no longer supported by students of modern education, though it still exercises a strong influence on the practices of a good many schools. Viewed in more dynamic terms, the curriculum is regarded as the total of all experiences that pupils have under the direction of the school. It is based upon the belief that learning takes place when the individual experiences as many situations as possible—situations that are real and immediate to his way of life. Consequently, it becomes a responsibility of the school to provide arrangements that will bring about the most desirable organization of learning experiences for pupils.

A course of study in the conventional type of curriculum is defined as a working plan for a particular division of the curriculum and is composed of materials closely enough related to make up a definite unit, such as a course of study in English covering three years of senior high school. Theoretically, a course of study includes a statement of the general aims of a particular division of the curriculum, an analysis of the materials of the course into a few major teaching units, a statement of the specific aims of each unit, an enumeration of teaching procedures and

teaching activities, and, finally, a listing of instructional materials and devices to be employed—textbooks, supplementary reference books, maps, charts, and visual aids.

The modern course of study no longer bears the same relationship to the curriculum. It serves primarily as a manual or guide, which the teacher uses for reference purposes in developing the curriculum with the pupils in the classroom. In this respect it serves as a means instead of an end, not a prescription to be carried out by the teacher.

In terms of our more recent thinking about the curriculum, precedent carries little or no weight in the selection of learning experiences and instructional materials. Modern psychology dictates that learning takes place only as the learner is actively participating in the learning process; thus the road to any desired educational outcome lies in the provisions that are made for the child to gain real and vicarious experiences fitted to his level of development, his needs, and his interests. Instructional materials and methods of teaching stand in a secondary position; they are determined entirely by the requirements of the learning situation. The so-called tool subjects—reading, writing, spelling, arithmetic, and so on—are taught primarily in relation to their present use rather than in isolation for later use; they are made to function at the time they are needed. Habits, attitudes, and appreciations are likewise recognized as significant aspects of the individual's growth and development for which the school has a definite responsibility. In brief, the focal point of attention is the pupil.

INFLUENCES AFFECTING THE CURRICULUM

Whenever school officials, including boards of education, administrators, and teachers, undertake any program of curriculum change, they must be cognizant of the influences affecting the curriculum. Some of these influences are responsible to a large extent for the nature of the present program, whereas others have stimulated the movement for revising the curriculum and bringing it in line with contemporary conditions.

Custom and Convention

To understand the deeply embedded and static nature of the curriculum in many schools today, it is necessary to look back upon the history and evolution of public education in this country. Much of our curriculum was a European import that emphasized a type of learning found in foreign countries where class lines were sharply drawn. Serving as the pattern for the early private and sectarian schools, it remained dominant until modified by the growth of free, tax-supported, public schools. But its influence penetrated deeply the program of public education with the result that much of it still characterizes the offerings of the secondary school and liberal arts college of our day, with a few remnants still to be found in the elementary school.

The early schools of this country were built around many of the ideals still considered basic to education in a democracy. Paramount among these ideals was the belief in training for active and effective citizenship. This aim was closely associated with the conviction that the school should serve as an instrument for social improvement and social reform. To accomplish both of these aims, however, it was necessary to give attention to the moral aspects of living as well as the vocational preparation needed for attaining economic self-sufficiency. There is no question about the validity of these purposes today. They are still accepted as essential purposes of public education, although their original meanings have been broadened somewhat to fit contemporary conditions. A difficulty arises at once, however, when efforts are made to change or to improve upon the curricular means used for achieving them.

Our traditional heritage, in this respect, is found in the subjects selected for the curriculum and the principles of teaching underlying the learning process. Associated with an early belief in the humanities as the means for attaining cultural enlightenment, such subjects as literature, history, foreign languages, mathematics, and science became the vehicles for a so-called liberal education. They have remained as the center of the curriculum in the majority of secondary schools and colleges. Those who

undertake this type of program are expected to gain a knowledge of our cultural heritage and to develop a broad view of life—the marks of an educated person.

The concept of cultural development through the best knowledge of the past cannot be disassociated from the psychological doctrine of mental discipline or mind training. The thought has persisted that learning facts through a process of memorization results in a body of knowledge useful in meeting the problems of adult life, especially when the facts acquired are abstract and difficult to understand. The mastery of such facts trains the memory, sharpens judgment, and facilitates reasoning, according to those who advocate a liberal education. Unfortunately, what is studied often bears little relationship to present personal and social needs.

Realizing the fallacies found in the doctrines of cultural development and mental discipline, and backed by a sounder philosophy of education and a functional psychology of learning, many educators and laymen have made a frontal attack upon the traditional curriculum. They have tried to bring the offerings and methods of the school in line with present-day needs and problems, with developments in education, and with sound research findings. Their efforts, however, have met with strong, well-organized opposition. It has come from vested-interest groups and individuals who are convinced that traditional training prepares best for life. The struggle has been under way for several years and it will undoubtedly continue for several more, so long as the influence of tradition remains such a powerful factor in American education.

Textbooks

One of the most distinctive characteristics of American education at all levels is the great dependence on textbooks. It began in our early schools where many teachers were poorly qualified. They depended upon the textbook to supply the information about subjects they were not trained to teach. The practice of using textbooks as the principal source of instruction received the sanction of school committees who were interested in seeing

a substantial body of material covered by pupils. Not only did they believe that knowledge meant power, but also they had the assurance that a reputable textbook would in no way offend the community.

The selection of textbooks became more a matter of public concern with the growth of state educational systems and the levying of taxes for school support. Laws were passed in several states providing for the uniform adoption of textbooks within areas varying in size from the local district to the state itself. This tendency, beginning a short time after the Civil War, has continued until relatively recent times.

Growth in the use and adoption of textbooks, both on local and state levels, received considerable stimulation from commercial textbook publishers. This was natural in view of their financial interest in promoting a wide sale of their publications. Competition among publishers, however, carried with it a sharp concern for producing textbooks that were educationally sound as well as attractive in appearance. As a result, their appearance, mechanical make-up, typography, and general effectiveness have made them outstanding; in fact, no other nation has textbooks comparable to those in the United States.

The heavy reliance placed upon textbooks in our schools has had a marked effect upon the curriculum. Instead of developing instructional programs fitted to the needs and interests of boys and girls, uniform textbooks have been used without regard for individual differences. Teachers have come to look on them as a most desirable source of information and a satisfactory means for imparting information. Supplemented by the use of other printed materials, visual aids, and the like, they have remained nevertheless the core of the curriculum.

A strong reaction has taken place in recent years to the use of the textbook as an instrument of instruction. The development of better teaching methods, newer concepts of learning, the study of child growth and development, the improvement of teacher training, the movement toward functional learning, and the like have combined to bring about needed changes in the school curriculum. Although the textbook will continue undoubtedly to exert an influence on present and future practices,

the time has passed when teachers will be bound to text material. New curriculum practices call for a wide variety of materials, direct contact with the community as a primary source of learning, instruction through motion pictures and radio programs, activities suited to the abilities, needs, and interests of pupils, and a problem approach to learning in terms of real experiences. Obviously, no textbook can supply the variety of learning materials needed for instruction today.

Legal Requirements

Laws enacted by legislatures have had a direct influence upon the school curriculum. Some laws have been passed for the purpose of perpetuating certain ideals regarded as essential to citizenship in a democracy; others are the product of pressure groups interested in having their own ideas made a part of public thinking. As a consequence, all states have statutes prescribing certain subjects that must be taught in the public schools.

These subjects cover a wide field of learning, ranging in frequency by states from the teaching of the harmful effects of alcoholic beverages and narcotics to the use of the dictionary. Physiology and hygiene, arithmetic, English, geography, penmanship, reading, spelling, humane treatment of animals, fire prevention, Bible reading, sanitation, thrift, conservation, American history, civics, morals, art, oratory, and manners are among the long list of legislative prescriptions that schools are legally obligated to teach. There is no redress from these requirements unless the law is declared invalid by the courts or it is repealed by the legislature. It becomes important, therefore, for administrators and teachers to know the laws they are expected to carry out and, at the same time, to bring to public attention proposals for the incorporation of new subjects in the curriculum. A concerted effort on the part of school people to influence public opinion could do much to reduce the enactment of undesirable legislation related to the curriculum.

Pressure Groups

In much the same way that special legislation is enacted prescribing subjects to be taught in public schools, both private

individuals and organized groups work to have school officials incorporate their ideas in the curriculum or to remove certain segments of subject matter antagonistic to their vested interests. Any refusal to comply with their demands is usually followed by threats and reprisals, even though their demands are socially and educationally undesirable. It should be pointed out, however, that many of these pressure groups are impelled by motives that have high value for citizenship; they are interested primarily in promoting a brand of social action that they believe sincerely is best for the common welfare.

Many organizations seeking to influence the school curriculum are national in scope whereas others are strictly local in character. The national groups usually maintain a central headquarters that works closely with state divisions. Both the state divisions and the local units function along lines laid down by the national organization. They work for the passage of legislation on national and state levels, try to promote certain types of activities within the schools, contact administrative and teaching personnel, supply supplemental programs outside of the school system, use all publicity means available for selling their point of view, and often flood the schools with highly propagandistic literature attractively prepared for classroom use.

Some idea of the extent to which educational programs of special groups are carried on may be gained from examining the chart shown in Figure 29. This chart represents the educational program of the American Legion. Motivated by a strong and somewhat unselfish desire to promote its peculiar conception of "Americanism," the Legion has organized a most extensive program directed largely at the public schools. It wants boys and girls brought up to believe in the ideals and interpretations of "Americanism" which it considers essential to the preservation and improvement of our way of life. After making a thorough study of Legion activities in Pennsylvania, Armstrong concludes:

The American Legion in Pennsylvania definitely seeks to influence public education in the commonwealth. To fulfill this objective it has made the Americanism program the fulcrum of its educational activities. It seems to have achieved success

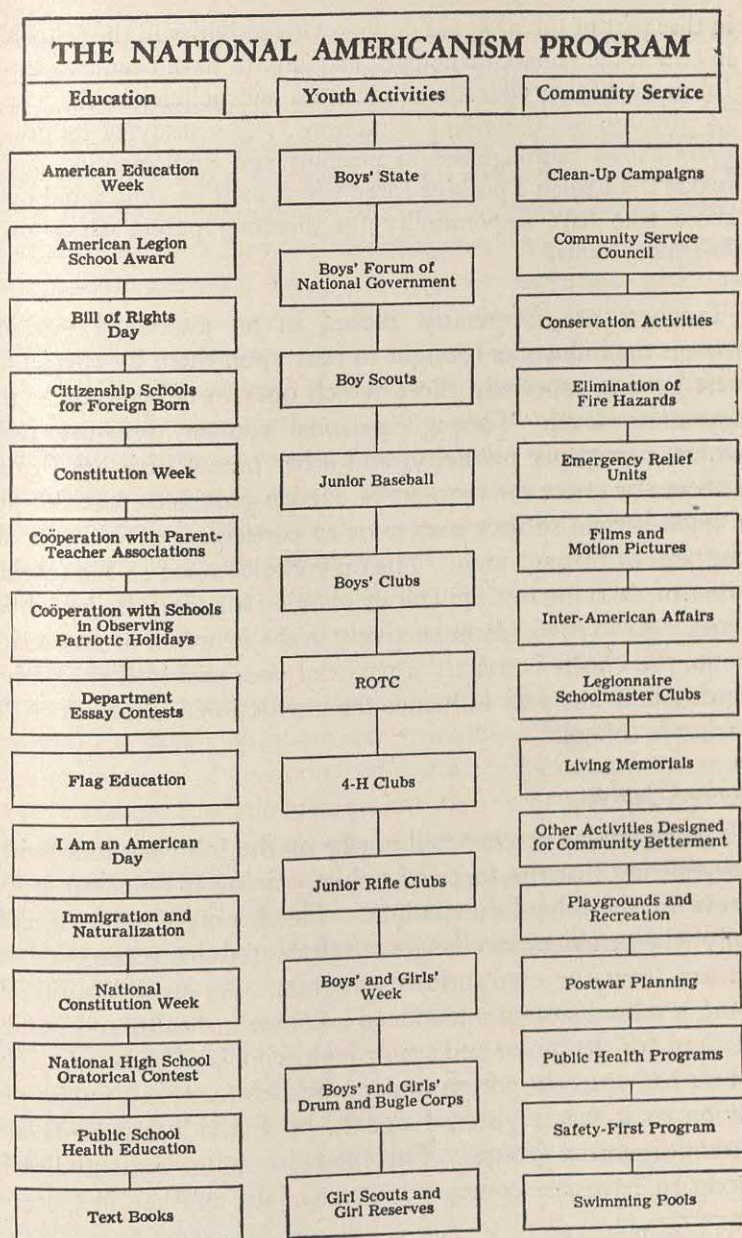


FIGURE 29. The Educational Program of the American Legion. National Americanism Commission, *Americanism Manual*, p. 11, Indianapolis, Indiana: National Headquarters, The American Legion, 1943.

in that part of the program dealing with activities in the schools in which the children take part; and also, to have been successful in modifying educational curricula and policies in the area of patriotic and citizenship education . . . a study of its program shows thoroughness in planning and implementing and makes the Legion a positive force which must be considered by those who have responsibility for directing public education in Pennsylvania.²

Teachers are frequently placed in an awkward position through the influences brought to bear upon them by special interest groups, especially those which operate effectively at the community level. Through personal contact, pressure from parents, newspaper publicity, and other means they are forced to accept or reject the requests of outside groups to teach or not to teach certain subject matter or to participate actively in the programs of these groups. The only choice open to the teacher is that of carrying out the law or obeying a ruling of the school board. As to participating actively in the program of an outside group, the choice is strictly a personal one, provided the activities do not in any way influence the instructional activities of the teacher in school.

Public Opinion

The beginning teacher will not be on the job very long without realizing that the force of public opinion is reflected in the nature of the school curriculum. This becomes evident especially when curriculum changes are attempted that represent a departure from the conventional program. As an illustration in point, a school system introduced a course in health and human relations for the junior and senior high schools of the city. The course had scarcely gotten under way before strong public objection to it was registered openly by individual parents and certain organized groups. This bloc of opinion was sufficiently strong to have the course withdrawn. In another instance, a

² Thomas F. Armstrong Jr., *The Public Educational Programs of Selected Lay Organizations in Pennsylvania*, p. 125. (Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Temple University, 1947.)

core program was launched without public awareness or understanding of its value. Soon parents began to make inquiry concerning the program. The newspapers criticized the fact that an innovation of this kind had been undertaken without public approval. It became a subject of discussion by various social groups throughout the community. Soon differences in opinion split the community into two factions, with the majority opposed to the program. As a result, this change was forced aside and the usual offerings restored to their traditional place.

On a smaller scale, the teacher will find that his practices in the classroom sometimes run counter to public opinion. When they do, protests are made by parents or by organized groups who bring pressure on school authorities. For example, the idea of delaying reading for some children until they have reached the second grade, or the teaching of a unit on housing in certain sections of the community which are rotting out are types of practices that have provoked protests. If the weight of opinion is heavy enough, usually the teacher is compelled to go along with it.

It does not take the new teacher long to realize that the static nature of the curriculum in many schools is a product of public belief in the value of traditional education. Because it represents the only kind of education most adults have experienced, they are reluctant to support any changes that they do not understand. Unless school people undertake a definite program for educating the public to the truth about the nature of learning and the needs of children in our culture today, the same traditional pattern will continue for some years to come.

Professional Influences

Besides the influences discussed previously, attention should be given to those coming from the members of the educational profession. Their impact upon the curriculum has probably had more influence than that of any other single group. It starts with the relationship of the superintendent and his staff to the board of education. Depending upon the superintendent for professional and technical advice, the board of education is in-

fluenced by his recommendations on matters pertaining to the curriculum, so much so in many school situations that educational decisions are left almost entirely in his hands. In consequence, the teacher looks to the superintendent and his staff for guidance in the organization of curriculum materials and the means for carrying on instructional activities.

The fact that the superintendent exercises wide controls over the nature of the instructional program does not release the teacher from a responsibility for the development and adaptation of the curriculum to the needs of pupils. This is true even though the superintendent is charged with the responsibility for organizing the curriculum, fitting the program to local conditions, selecting the necessary equipment and supplies, and appraising the efficiency with which instruction is carried on. In doing these things, he must depend upon teachers for the basic information and guidance essential to the development of a sound educational program.

Recognition has been given to the place of the teacher in curriculum development on a large scale throughout the country. Where formerly curriculum development was a special field for experts brought into the school system from colleges and universities, today it is a field for the professional development of teachers who work out, under the leadership of the superintendent and the guidance of specialists, the details of the curriculum which they live with pupils in the classroom. Their thinking exercises strong influence upon the nature of the curriculum, the materials of instruction, and the practices engaged in by the entire school system.

The philosophy and psychology of education that underlie the viewpoints of administrators and teachers inevitably influence classroom practices. If the administrative and instructional staffs are firm in their beliefs that democracy as a way of life, a political philosophy, and a method of working must find its fullest expression in the experiences of pupils, then the curricular and extracurricular activities provided throughout the school will be directed toward that end. If it is agreed that learning must be approached in terms of whole units built around real

and meaningful problems to pupils, it follows that the curriculum will be developed to a large extent by teachers and pupils planning together. Little reliance will be placed upon memorization as a method of learning, whereas much dependence will be placed upon the processes involved in learning to use factual information for the study and solution of problems.

Many professional influences likewise have come from teachers colleges, professional organizations, and published research findings. Teachers colleges and departments of education in colleges and universities are responsible for the training of professional personnel, both on undergraduate and graduate levels. Their position permits them to influence the thinking of administrators and teachers and to stretch ideas and theories out beyond the limits of existing curricular patterns. Stimulated by the leadership of professional organizations through reports, special studies, and meetings, administrators and teachers have tried to carry out the principles and recommendations of these groups in their own communities. The findings of research workers in education have also played a significant part in enriching the knowledge and understanding of teachers in all aspects of the curriculum. Outstanding in this respect is the progress made in child study, evaluation, community analysis, guidance and counseling, the teaching of reading, corrective speech, the needs of adolescents, curricular arrangements, instructional materials, and many other significant developments. All in all, the teaching profession has had a tremendous influence upon the curriculum of the elementary and secondary schools.

CURRICULAR PATTERNS

The basic differences regarding the learning process which exist today are found in the organization and administration of the elementary and secondary school curriculums. These differences are expressed in terms of subject matter, at one end of the scale, and in terms of child growth and development through the activity program, at the other. Several positions may be found between these extremes where elements of both viewpoints have been brought together.

The Subject-Matter Curriculum

In the subject-matter curriculum of the elementary and secondary schools, standards of achievement are fixed in terms of subject-matter mastery. The pupil must be able to demonstrate the attainment of certain skills or to give back certain quantities of factual information he has acquired. When this is done in accordance with established standards, the pupil is promoted to the next grade or division of the subject. Let us say that the third-grade child is introduced to the addition of numbers. After learning to add, he must learn to subtract, to divide, and to multiply. Each step in the process is laid out carefully and followed until he is able to use these skills in succeeding school situations. Similarly, other subjects are arranged in a systematic and logical sequence corresponding to the maturity of the learner.

In this type of curriculum, the simplest factors are placed in the beginning grades and the more difficult ones in the later grades. This is done because of the belief that it is necessary to add one element to another in going from the simple to the complex, and that the next step cannot be taken successfully unless the child knows the subject matter that preceded it. Having thus acquired all the subject matter offered in this way, the pupil is then able to apply it to situations he subsequently encounters in life. To meet life satisfactorily, he must have a command of the essential subjects such as reading, writing, spelling, arithmetic, geography, literature, hygiene, and history. A sound body, likewise being necessary for meeting life, calls for the inclusion of physical education as a curriculum constant. To this general background of essential knowledge is then added the long list of subjects constituting the secondary school curriculum where the same viewpoint toward learning prevails.

The Activity Curriculum

The proponents of the activity curriculum are more concerned with the nature of the child than they are with the subjects of instruction. They believe that the effort of the organism to deal successfully with a situation confronting it is the essence of life it-

self. Speaking for those who adhere to the activity concept, Kilpatrick states their point of view as follows:

They wish the child to be more nearly self-directed, believing that only as he practices the best on his stage of intelligent self-direction can he learn to be more intelligently self-directing. That this may be possible, they further believe that the desirable school life should, in this respect, take on more of the quality of the best life outside of school. They therefore seek to have pupils engage in desirable purposeful activity, where the ends thus set up are the pupil's own and are felt and pursued as such. On this basis, *study* is the personal effort to deal intelligently with the situation at hand. Learning follows from study, but includes all resulting changes in the person (organism) as he thus works at the situation before him. Study and learning are now seen as inherent in the meaning life process. What is learned is *not* set up in advance but accompanies and follows the efforts at meeting the situation, being called out by these efforts. . . . The school curriculum on this position does not consist of matter set-out-in-advance-to-be-learned, but of the succession of educative experiences so far as the school accepts responsibility for them. An "activity" thus means any distinguishable instance of such meaningful experience.³

Unfortunately, some of the earlier interpretations of the activity curriculum, in practice, limited learning to those interests and suggestions made by pupils. Gross inefficiency resulted with a corresponding denunciation of the theory behind it.

The situation is different today in many elementary schools where a serious effort is made to develop the curriculum around the needs, interests, and purposes of pupils under teacher guidance. The teacher exercises a definite influence on the units selected for instructional purposes, and helps pupils learn how to make wise choices. Attention is likewise given to the development of skills in tool subjects in relation to their use. Several other modifications have taken place which have brought about a respect for and a belief in the value of pupil activities as a means

³ William Heard Kilpatrick, "The Essentials of the Activity Movement," p. 4. Reprinted from *Progressive Education*, October, 1934.

of producing sound learning. Without doubt, the activity curriculum of the elementary school, and the curriculum practices reflecting its philosophy in the secondary school, will become increasingly the pattern for curriculum organization in the future.

Correlation

Many serious efforts have been made in the elementary and secondary school to improve upon the methods of teaching subject matter without changing the curriculum organization. One method for doing this involves a co-operative relationship between teachers of different subjects. Each tries to keep in touch with work that the other is doing so that their classroom programs can stress the connection between their respective fields of learning. If the history teacher is taking up the Revolutionary War, written work concerning this topic is covered in English class, music of the period is studied in the music class, and related art is studied in the art class. This does not involve any change in curricular arrangement, since the correlation takes place only when it is convenient.

However, when closer correlation is desired, some reorganization of subject matter is involved. Usually the content of each subject is worked out in a parallel series of topics or units. A time schedule is then devised and the topics or units are taught concurrently with various phases being considered in different subjects.

Similarly, systematic correlation is effected when a subject such as social studies is used as the center or nucleus of the curriculum. If this arrangement is followed, then everything taught in other fields is related to this center course. The teachers involved meet as a group and plan regularly for the entire program and the aspects of it to be covered in their subjects.

Fusion

The fusion method of curriculum organization has been limited largely to the social studies field, although current developments suggest a wider application of fusion to other fields, especially in the sciences where elements are brought together

which have an immediate and practical application to everyday life. Fusion involves combining one or more subjects like history, geography, economics, political science, and economics. The combination of these subjects is referred to as social studies.

In the fusion plan of curriculum organization, subject matter may be retained or it may be discarded in favor of a particular type of unit arrangement. When it is retained, the curriculum generally consists of a series of topics involving aspects of subject matter from each field that has been fused. The same result may be obtained if subject matter units are used instead of topics because the difference between them is relatively slight. But a real difference in the nature of the curriculum takes place when the units are developmental in character and subject matter is a means for working out a problem, illustrating a generalization, or satisfying an interest around which the unit has been constructed. Each of the fused subject fields then becomes a source of information to be drawn upon as needed in working out the unit.

Core Curriculum

Although the types of curricular arrangements described previously have attracted widespread attention, greater interest has been shown in the organization of the core curriculum. As the phrase is commonly used, it has come to mean a series of learning experiences regarded as basic to successful living in our culture. At the elementary level, the core program may absorb most of the school day since the elementary school is concerned with essential and common educational experiences. Beginning with the junior high school and continuing into the first year of the senior high school or through the tenth grade, as much as three periods or one half of the school day is assigned to core work under the guidance of a single teacher who may be assisted from time to time with specialists on call. The time is decreased in the later grades so that pupils may have more opportunity for choosing electives in fields of their interest or to satisfy requirements for college entrance. The organization of the core curriculum is shown in Figure 30.

There are several features of the core curriculum, aside from

the allocation of time, which give to it a definite distinctiveness. Some of these features may be described as follows:

1. The elimination of subject-matter divisions in order to create a more desirable teaching and learning situation.
2. The development of learning experiences around well-defined units which are either suggested in advance by the teacher or which grow out of recognized needs and interests of the pupils.
3. The use of materials and information from any subject field when needed for facilitating the progress of the unit.

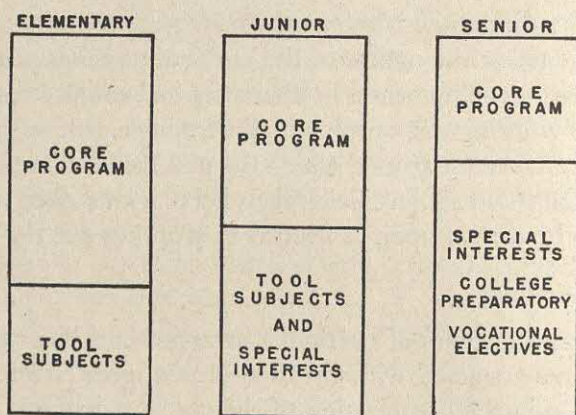


FIGURE 30. The Organization of the Core Curriculum.

4. The relating of what is studied in the classroom to the personal, social, and economic problems of pupils, with emphasis upon its value for use now and later in life.
5. Recognition of the fact that teaching and guidance cannot be treated separately; that functional learning can best take place when it is approached from the guidance point of view.
6. A curriculum so flexible in character as to permit rapid adjustment to personal and social problems of immediate concern.
7. An equal concern for the processes through which learning takes place as for the products that result from such learning.
8. A variety of learning activities fitted to the differences found among individual members of the group.
9. A continuous evaluation of the learning process.

Many curricular arrangements that carry the core label do not possess such features as those described above. Instead, they are nothing more than expressions of systematic correlation with subject-matter emphases, or else they are a fusion of two subjects—English and social studies—taught in a traditional manner. It is quite possible that such courses are regarded as the center or the core of the curriculum. Actually, however, they are no different from the conventional offerings so far as the approach to learning is concerned.

In core programs that represent a departure from the past, several bases are used for selecting and organizing units of instruction. One basis is the needs common to man—food, clothing, shelter, communication, and so on. Another deals with the social functions in which man engages or the social activities he carries out—production, distribution, consumption, protection and conservation, and the like. A third basis may be found in the forces, agencies, and institutions of society, namely, recreation, the expression of aesthetic impulses, education, exploration, and others. A fourth point is located in the lives of pupils in their own community. And, lastly, the units may be developed strictly in terms of pupil needs, interests, and purposes as these become evident in daily classroom experience. All of these bases, however, have in common a concern for human values through which the dynamics of the curriculum are operated.

Broad Fields

A correlative aspect of the core program is found in the broad fields curriculum. Provision is made in the broad fields for the intensive study of special subjects or subjects of particular interest to a pupil. In some instances the broad fields curriculum is fixed as a requirement for all pupils, whereas in others it is made up of a wide range of subjects from which the pupil can make his own selections. For example, the fixed program might include courses in social living, science studies, general arts, and physical and health education. On an elective basis, the choices might be made from the fields of fine and industrial arts, home economics, agriculture, biology, chemistry, physics, commercial

subjects, mathematics, foreign languages, and English. In either case, the studies pursued during the time allotted in this part of the school day do not involve a repetition of core material.

Complete Integration

The framework of the core and broad fields arrangement suggests a possible integration of the entire curriculum. By eliminating the broad fields and organizing the core around various functions of life or areas of human living the remaining vestige of subjects-for-study could be eliminated.

An approximate design for an integrated curriculum of this character is found in the Mississippi program. In this program, the curriculum is organized around nine areas of living. These areas are described as (1) protecting life and property, (2) getting a living, (3) making a home, (4) expressing religious impulses, (5) expressing aesthetic impulses, (6) securing an education, (7) co-operating in social and civil action, (8) engaging in recreation, and (9) improving material conditions.⁴ Within each area units of instruction are worked out for grades one through twelve. The units selected for each grade contribute to an understanding of a center of interest, and the centers of interest are related to themes corresponding to levels of child growth and development.

Although the arrangement suggested in the Mississippi program offers several interesting considerations pointed toward a complete integration of subject matter, it is but a single illustration of the means available for effecting a totally different type of instructional organization. In all probability, the start made in this and similar programs will continue to serve as a stimulus for curriculum experimentation.

CURRICULUM CONSTRUCTION

It is appropriate to ask at this point how a school system may go at the problem of revising or reorganizing the curriculum.

⁴ Henry Harap (Chairman), *The Changing Curriculum*, p. 93. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., 1937.

Theoretically, at least, the process starts with a clear conception of purposes toward which instruction is directed and ends with an evaluation of the learning product. Between these points, a series of steps are taken which concern the learner, the community, the organization of learning experiences, the selection of instructional materials, and the functional activities of the teacher.

Steps in Curriculum Construction

Various students of curriculum construction have stated the steps to be followed in curriculum revision or reorganization. Although their recommendations differ in detail, the general procedure is somewhat as follows:

1. Determining social needs and problems through the discovery of facts about the conditions of life in the community.
2. A study of human development involving detailed considerations of the nature of growth and the needs of children.
3. Formulating a definite philosophy of education which reflects an understanding of the facts arising from a study of social needs and problems and the basic considerations underlying human development.
4. Translating the philosophy of education into a statement of the purposes for which the school exists.
5. Breaking down each purpose into its several aspects and describing the kinds of behavior in pupils that should result when each aspect of the purpose has been attained.
6. Determining the nature of the learning experiences and instructional material needed to produce the desired forms of behavior.
7. Organizing the learning experiences and instructional materials into a suggested series of teaching units.
8. Constructing experimental teaching units.
9. Trying out the experimental units and revising them in the light of findings growing out of the experimentation.
10. Determining the situations and the means available for gathering evidence revealing the outcomes of learning.

11. Estimating the degree to which the outcomes of learning approximate the established purposes.
12. Revising the curriculum along lines suggested by the evidence concerning the extent to which purposes have been realized.

Practical Considerations

In actual practice a large number of schools do not follow so comprehensive a series of steps as those just described. Administrators have not seen fit to disregard subject-matter tradition, even though they may believe in a theory of curriculum construction that would ignore it. Forced as they have been frequently to compromise between the need for a functional program and the exigencies of their situation, they have made only such changes as seemed practical. Yet in spite of the conservatism that characterizes the typical administrator, enormous progress has been made in curricular improvement during the last decade. Large sections of useless materials have been eliminated from the curriculums of the elementary and secondary schools; attention has been centered on realistic purposes of education; some subjects of study have been eliminated from the curriculum, and reorganized programs have brought in new and better arrangements of learning experiences; textbooks have been pushed into a secondary position with a wide variety of source materials taking their place; and, among other changes, thousands of teachers have had their attention centered on the nature of the child and the adolescent, his needs and interests, rather than on the subject matter of instruction.

THE TEACHER AND CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

Throughout the preceding discussion the beginning teacher has undoubtedly raised the question regarding his role in curriculum development. In past years, the majority of teachers had little or nothing to say about curricular problems. Today, however, the teacher has a very important part in the revision that is taking place.

The reasons for teacher participation in programs of curriculum development are clearly stated by Caswell and Campbell:

If the success of a curriculum program is to be measured by the changes that are achieved in the conduct of boys and girls by reason of improvements accomplished in the instructional program, it becomes evident that early in the program the entire teacher-group within the system must become sensitized to the need for the improvement of instruction. Provision should be made for the stimulation and guidance of the professional reading and study of teachers. Procedures for classroom exploration and experimentation should be provided. Illustrative instructional materials should be made available. Opportunities should be provided for wide participation in the discussion of curriculum problems. In other words, the entire teacher-group should be brought into close contact with the program in its early stages and should be kept constantly informed of the progress of the program. In a well-conceived and organized program of curriculum revision the entire teacher-group will know why the program is being projected, what the purposes of the program are, and the means proposed for accomplishing these purposes. Only through a thorough understanding of the curriculum program and of all its implications can the teacher-group give the intelligent cooperation that will result in improved classroom instruction. Therefore, every available means should be used to sensitize the teacher-group to the need for curriculum change and to keep the group informed of developments in order that their interest may be maintained and their continued cooperation secured.

Failure to sensitize the teacher-group to the needs for curriculum change and failure to keep the entire group in contact with the developments of the program have resulted in the production of courses of study which were little used except by the few teachers who worked on them. The original tendency in the type of programs designed solely to develop courses of study was to have the work done by a small group of persons, the active participants in the curriculum programs often being only twenty-five to fifty people. The results of such programs were unsatisfactory, not necessarily because the new materials

were not well selected and well written, but because these materials were not generally used. Because of this condition emphasis began to be placed upon large committees and upon wide teacher participation in course of study making. It was maintained that one of the best ways to give teachers a knowledge of what is in the course of study and an interest in its effective use is to give them a part in its production.⁵

In keeping with the reasons presented by Caswell and Campbell, teachers are increasingly being given a dynamic role in curriculum revision, particularly in those schools where able administrative and supervisory leadership is found. As a consequence, the beginning teacher should become an alert student of curriculum problems and prepare himself as much as possible for the responsibilities that lie ahead.

Some beginning teachers will accept employment in schools where very little will be done along the lines of development indicated in this chapter. For these teachers, is there any real value in becoming an alert student of the curriculum? In attempting an answer to this question, the fact should be stated again that the teachers in such schools will be handed a ready-made course of study or outline of content with instructions to carry it out; they will be told what they must teach. But the limitations imposed by this mandate do not prevent these teachers from interpreting the meaning and purposes of their subject assignments for the pupils whom they meet in the classroom. It lies within their power to determine to a large extent what the details of the instructional program shall be. Even with a required textbook, teachers can use it as a point of departure for many interesting and profitable learning activities fitted to the nature and needs of the learners. They can supplement the textbook in dozens of ways, utilize many varied sources of information, stimulate pupils to undertake independent projects, and relate what is studied to the realities around them. In their daily tasks of making the curriculum a functional part of the thinking and living of every boy and girl, they are increasing their own

⁵ Hollis L. Caswell and Doak S. Campbell, *Curriculum Development*, pp. 468-70. New York: American Book Company, 1935.

value as teachers and giving a purpose to their work. Through the efforts of wide-awake and professionally minded teachers, progress is being made in American education.

RELATED READINGS

Alberty, Harold, *Reorganizing the High-School Curriculum*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1947.

A comprehensive discussion of the purposes and program of the secondary school, current curriculum practices, and the reorganization which has taken place in recent years.

Bent, Rudyard K. and Kronenberg, Henry H., *Principles of Secondary Education*, Chaps. 8-15. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1941.

Three chapters are given over to a description of various types of core curriculum programs. The other chapters deal with provisions for individual differences and trends in the organization and reorganization of secondary school curriculums.

Bobbitt, Franklin, *The Curriculum of Modern Education*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1941.

A theory of the curriculum necessary for the attainment of the good life is set forth in this volume.

Bruner, Herbert B., "Some Requirements of the Elementary School Curriculum," *Teachers' College Record*, 39:273-86. January, 1938.

The social aspects of education form the bases upon which the author's major requirements for the elementary school curriculum are constructed.

Caswell, Hollis L., *Education in the Elementary School*. New York: American Book Company, 1942.

The book analyzes the program of the elementary school and indicates the problems that must be dealt with in order fully to realize its purposes.

Caswell, Hollis L. and Campbell, Doak S., *Curriculum Development*, Chaps. 3, 4, 5. New York: American Book Company, 1935.

Information may be found here concerning the social responsibility of the school, the influences that effect curriculum development, and current thinking about the nature of the curriculum.

Several other chapters in the book also have value for beginning teachers.

Douglass, Aubrey A., *The American School System* (Revised Edition). New York: Farrar and Rinehart, Inc., 1940.

The educational program of American schools is described by the author. He then points out the steps being taken to change the program and the problems obstructing some of the changes that are needed.

Douglass, Harl R. (Editor), *The High School Curriculum*. New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1947.

A thorough treatment of the secondary school curriculum by several authors.

Harp, Henry (Chairman), *The Changing Curriculum*. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., 1937.

Prepared by several individuals, this book takes up the theoretical bases of curriculum planning and offers an appraisal of selected programs in curriculum development throughout the country.

Hopkins, L. Thomas, *Integration: Its Meaning and Application*, Chaps. 10, 11, 12, 13. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., 1937.

The nature and function of the correlated, broad fields, core, and experience curriculums are discussed in a readable and understandable way by various authors who contributed to this volume.

Hopkins, L. Thomas, *Interaction: The Democratic Process*, Chaps. 1, 2, 9. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company, 1941.

The emphases in subject and experience curriculums are pointed out. The nature of various curricular patterns is considered. How curriculums are developed receives strong attention. There are several other chapters of value to a beginning teacher.

Lee, J. Murray and Lee, Dorris May, *The Child and His Curriculum*. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., 1940.

The second part of this book is given over completely to a consideration of experiences as the curriculum. It is one of the best treatments of functional education available for those who are especially interested in the modern elementary school curriculum.

Miel, Alice, *Changing the Curriculum*. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., 1946.

The basic factors underlying the need for curriculum change and the means available for reorganizing the curriculum are discussed in this book.

Spears, Harold, *Secondary Education in American Life*, Chaps. 4, 5, 6. New York: American Book Company, 1941.

A good discussion of our curriculum heritage, problems it has created, and the efforts being made to bring the curriculum in line with present-day living.

Spears, Harold, *The Emerging High School Curriculum and Its Direction*. New York: American Book Company, 1940.

The curriculum developments undertaken by several schools in different parts of the country are reported. They afford an excellent picture of changes taking place in the curriculum of the secondary school.

Chapter 12

DIRECTING EXTRACURRICULAR ACTIVITIES

SCHOOL ACTIVITIES, outside of regular classroom instruction, have been associated with formalized education from its very beginning. Students throughout history have apparently felt the same urge that they do today for various social and recreational activities. The program that has been created to meet this need is commonly known as the program of extracurricular activities.

Some difference of opinion exists, however, over the place and meaning of the extracurricular program at the present time. This difference is evident in the terminology used to describe the program. It has been referred to as cocurricular, extraclass, collateral, intercurricular, semicurricular, and curricular. In the last use of the term, no difference is recognized between extracurricular activities and those carried on in the classroom. In a general way, it can be said that the term covers such aspects of the educational program as athletics, clubs, dramatics, musical organizations, student publications, and others. Although these activities are commonly initiated and controlled by students, they are likewise encouraged and supervised by faculty members. Credit may or may not be given for them. Whereas some take place outside of class hours, special periods are set aside in many schools during the school day so that all pupils may have an opportunity to participate.

The difficulty in defining the term turns on the fact that no school activity is outside of the curriculum. It is considered to be outside only in the relationship it bears to the remainder of the school program. In point, musical organizations, student

publications, and dramatics have been regarded for many years as being apart from the established curriculum, yet today they are accorded, in many schools, the same recognition as any other subject or field of learning. The tendency, however, has been for an activity, once it is labeled extracurricular, to continue to be so designated even though it may be very difficult to distinguish between it and a curricular activity.

VALUES CLAIMED FOR EXTRACURRICULAR ACTIVITIES

Although many educators lament the evils of interscholastic athletics, and a few express general alarm at some practices carried on in various other aspects of the program, the vast majority profess to see values in the extracurricular program equivalent to those claimed for the conventional subjects. In fact, the studies reveal that all values that have been ascribed to extracurricular activities are regarded as pertinent to a program of general education. As a consequence, extracurricular programs have received strong support in schools at all levels of the educational ladder.

Among the more frequently mentioned values of extracurricular activities, the following stand out:

1. Better use of leisure time.
2. Experience in democratic living.
3. Increasing self-direction.
4. Training for ethical living.
5. Improved school morale.
6. Training for leadership.
7. Arousal and extension of pupils' interests.
8. Concepts of teamwork in place of selfishness and competition.
9. Development of special skills.
10. Improvements in social usages, manners, and customs.
11. Experiences that supplement classroom instruction.
12. Encouragement of better scholarship.
13. Promoting better understanding between school and community.
14. Furnishing opportunities for self-expression.

15. Affording opportunity for educational and vocational exploration.

These are broad claims indeed for the whole or any part of the program. They do raise some question, if we ask whether these claims are entirely due to an honest conviction about the value of such activities, or only a partial conviction due to the pressures brought by the pupils and the public to give them a prominent place in the school program. Do interscholastic athletics and oratorical contests, for example, make all the contributions to character and personality which are claimed frequently for these activities, or have their educational supporters manufactured a few values in defense of their place in the total school program?

There is little doubt but that the rationalization of many educators has had something to do with the respectability of the extracurricular program. On the other hand, unbiased judgment would lead even the uninitiated to the conclusion that potentially, at least, extracurricular activities possess enormous possibilities for pupil growth and development. Their conduct is consistent with accepted principles of learning, particularly if the doctrines of pupil interest and pupil activity are valid. Moreover, it is relatively easy to note subjectively the connection between the kinds of learning that take place in the extracurricular program and the generally accepted purposes of education. In this respect, it can be pointed out that the extracurricular program possesses possibilities for effective learning not attributable to much of the traditional academic program. Even the severest critic is forced to admit this point although the contributions of extracurricular activities are frequently overemphasized. When they are properly organized and directed, there can be little question about their value for the wholesome, well-rounded development of children and youth.

THE SCOPE OF THE PROGRAM

The nature and the extent of the activities included within extracurricular programs vary so greatly that it is difficult to make a satisfactory analysis of current practices in either the ele-

mentary or the secondary school. The Fourteenth Yearbook of the Department of Elementary School Principals indicates that a surprising development has taken place in the extracurricular program of elementary schools.¹ Various types of activities, including student councils, safety patrols, musical groups, athletic organizations, and service clubs, have become an established part of the learning experiences for elementary children. Reavis and Van Dyke, in their study of nonathletic activities in selected secondary schools, reported 284 different groups of activities classified as (1) student government, school service, and honorary organizations; (2) social, moral, leadership and guidance clubs; (3) departmental clubs; (4) publications and journalistic organizations; (5) dramatic clubs, literary societies, and forensic activities; (6) musical organizations; and (7) special-interest clubs.²

The classification used for describing extracurricular activities is of minor importance to a beginning teacher. But it is important that this teacher have a conception of the scope and possibilities of these activities for instructional purposes. Some of them will be discussed briefly so that a better understanding of their nature and place in the school may be acquired.

School Publications

There are relatively few secondary schools that do not publish some sort of a school newspaper either in printed or mimeographed form. In addition to this publication, the great majority issue an annual or semiannual yearbook, and a handbook in which pertinent information about the school may be found. Special club or departmental magazines and bulletins are also common, especially in schools having large enrollments.

A school newspaper usually reports items having local interest to student readers. Operated by students, under the direction

¹ *Socializing Experiences in the Elementary School*, Fourteenth Yearbook, Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association. Washington: National Education Association, 1935.

² William C. Reavis and George E. Van Dyke, *Nonathletic Extracurricular Activities*, pp. 78-79. National Survey of Secondary Education, Monograph 26. Washington: U. S. Office of Education, 1933.

of a faculty sponsor, it features news coverage and editorials that are read widely by fellow classmates. Many of its editorial opinions undoubtedly exercise real influence on the thinking and viewpoints of the student body. In this respect, it does have a definite place in the school community.

Besides its stimulating effect upon the school community, the newspaper provides excellent opportunities for learning on the part of the pupils who run it. They become alert observers of school life and learn to write clearly and carefully, to undertake investigations for the stories involved, to assume and live up to their responsibilities, to live within the budgetary restrictions imposed upon them, and to work as a team in a socially co-operative enterprise. These values, and others involved in this activity, give the school newspaper a prominent place in a modern school.

The annual or semiannual yearbook published by each graduating class offers less value for learning than does the newspaper. Large in size, high in cost, and limited in scope to a treatment of school activities, membership by classes, biographical statements concerning each member of the graduating class, and a few other features, it is usually purchased by only a small percentage of the students, reviewed once, and put away for historical and sentimental reasons. A good deal of criticism has been directed against yearbooks, largely because of high costs and low educational values. However, those responsible for preparing and editing the book gain many worth-while experiences from the work they do.

The handbook, in contrast to the yearbook, finds its way into the life of every boy and girl. Its pages contain information about the activities of the school, graduation requirements, members of the faculty, courses of study offered, a calendar of school events, and related materials, which makes it a handy reference manual and guidance instrument for the orientation of students and parents to the school program.

The practice of publishing inexpensive duplicated or mimeographed papers by clubs, departments, and certain classes has become popular in recent years. These publications are usually

the product of pupils working under teacher direction in the same way that other educational projects are handled. The work is done in regular classes and offers a medium and incentive for the expression of pupil ideas and accomplishments. Like the previous school publications, they can be justified fully in terms of the educational dividends they pay.

Athletics

The most popular extracurricular activity is athletics. Sports of all kinds are provided for pupils from the beginning grades of school through the university. They have come about from the pressure of students themselves and the interest the public has taken in them. Their importance has been stressed, especially in interscholastic contests, to a point where, in some schools, they have overshadowed the more important purposes of education.

That athletics have an educational value for growing boys and girls is accepted without much question. One needs only to look at the physical benefits that come from well-directed play, the recreational interests that games and sports awaken, the social experiences derived from group projects, the habits of clean and healthful living encouraged, and the sense of sportsmanship and fair play involved.

Unfortunately, these values are lost in many instances because the desire to win has become a primary objective of athletics. Students are highly trained in skills and techniques of team play. They are provided with the best of equipment and the help of specialized coaches whose tenure frequently hinges upon team success in interscholastic competition. Large salaries, expensive equipment, and travel costs all combine to tint high school sports with an appearance of commercialism. This tendency needs to be reduced and more attention given to the values of athletics for those who take part in them. At the same time, renewed effort must be made to extend the opportunities for games and sports to more pupils through a broadening of the intramural program. In other words, athletics must be evaluated more and more in terms of their contribution to young people, and less and less in

terms of gate receipts and games won. Unless a sharp revision is made in the athletic programs of some schools, such programs can no longer be justified in terms of educational values.

Student Clubs

In many schools student clubs rank next to athletics in popularity. Through membership in these clubs, opportunities are offered for expanding personal interests or for acquiring information and skill in fields outside of the regular curriculum. Boys and girls who are interested in speech activities join dramatic, oratorical, debating, and declamation clubs. If they have an interest in science, they may belong to clubs in photography, radio, nature study, and astronomy. Similar opportunities are offered in cross-sectional clubs sponsored by the various subject departments such as French, music, English, history, and mathematics. Hobby interests are taken care of through club programs in archery, social dancing, stamp collecting, puppetry, travel, and numerous others. Character-building units are also found in many schools. These include Hi-Y, Allied Youth, Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, Campfire Girls, and Girl Reserves. For some pupils who may lack interest in the variety of clubs just mentioned, worth-while experiences may be gained through participation in school service activities. Sometimes organized as clubs, these activities are used to supplement the services of teachers and noninstructional personnel. They cover such fields of service as traffic direction, stagecraft, hall patrol, direction of noon-hour recreation, assembly, library, school office, and the management of the student store.

In the administration and organization of the student club program, it is educationally advisable to have clubs grow out of the recognized needs and interests of the students themselves. When requests for particular clubs come from members of the student body, there is more enthusiasm and support given to them because the students know what they want and regard such clubs as their own. To avoid the tendency of having the club program come from the top down rather than from the bottom up, some educators recommend that the entire program should

be reorganized annually on the basis of student preferences. Where this is done, some of the more established clubs and their faculty sponsors are displaced in favor of clubs more in keeping with the current interests of pupils. Such a plan not only keeps the club program alive and vital but it also stimulates faculty sponsors to do an outstanding job of helping students to get the most possible from the club program.

Student Councils

In order that students may gain a working knowledge of the problems and processes involved in our form of political organization and learn to make intelligent decisions regarding their own social welfare, provision has been made in many schools for their participation in school government. Authority has been delegated to student groups known as associations or councils who act for the student body. They are authorized to make rules and regulations affecting all pupils, to enforce their own ordinances, and to perform services of benefit to the school community.

Their corporate existence is determined usually by a constitution and set by bylaws representing a popular expression of student will within the limits of authority delegated by school administrative officials. The constitution and bylaws generally contain specific articles and sections dealing with the name of the organization, its purpose, membership, authority or powers, officers, duties of officers, meetings, committees, and procedures for amending the constitution and bylaws.

The officers of most student government associations include a president, vice-president, secretary, and treasurer who are elected by the student body. Thoughtful attention is given to the election of officers in schools where the student council operates effectively. From the time a student is nominated for an office to the final counting of the ballots, the procedures followed duplicate in detail those used in the election of public officials.

A similar pattern prevails in the selection of student representatives to the council. Here, however, the basic unit they

represent is generally the homeroom to which they have been assigned for administrative and guidance purposes. If the homeroom is not used as the unit for representation, the delegates are selected by classes or some other convenient means suitable for council representation. Those who are chosen for the council not only express the thinking of their constituents but also report back on all matters of council business. In this way the entire school is able to take an active part in the decisions that are made.

The school faculty is likewise represented on the council through one or more sponsors appointed by the principal. Generally denied the right to vote on council business, the sponsor expresses the viewpoint of the administration on debatable issues, advises on matters of procedure, stimulates and educates members to carry forward the purposes of the council, and guides their actions when difficult problems arise. A good faculty sponsor is often the key to council success. His leadership, esteem, enthusiasm, patience, and attitude toward this responsibility influence a good deal the attitude of council members and the diligence with which they undertake the privileges and obligations of participation in school government.

The programs of student councils vary, of course, from school to school. This is due to the fact that efficient councils build their programs around the needs and problems of the student bodies in their own particular schools. Certain common program features are found, however, in provisions made for traffic safety in corridors, playgrounds, and streets; assembly programs; lost and found articles; financing student activities; honor awards; attendance; publications; student courts; social affairs; and election controls. Much of this work is performed by committees either chosen by the council or elected from the various homerooms or classes.

From an educational point of view pupil participation in school government through the activities of the student council is an essential part of any on-going program for citizenship training. When developed and directed properly, it makes an outstanding contribution to morale within the school, respect for

others, an appreciation of responsibility, and a school community that functions democratically.

The Homeroom

As pointed out previously, the homeroom is a basic unit for student participation in school government. Each homeroom elects one or more representatives to the student council. Members are expected to keep the homeroom group informed about council proceedings and to carry out their wishes in council meetings. In this way, each pupil in a homeroom knows what is taking place and feels that he has a part in the making of decisions affecting his welfare.

The same pattern of government is duplicated on a smaller scale in each homeroom. Officers are elected to conduct homeroom meetings, whereas business concerning the group is taken up on a regular weekly schedule. Frequently, constitutions and bylaws are drafted and adopted by various homeroom groups in an effort to regulate consistently their way of doing business and to define the limits within which their activities may be carried out. Some homeroom groups create standing committees to care for routine matters of attendance, punctuality, cleanliness, appearance of the room, and similar administrative details. Special committees are created for taking care of special events. Such events might include an assembly program, a parents' night, participation in an all-school exhibit, or a periodic evaluation of the homeroom itself. When full use is made of the opportunities provided by the homeroom for organizing and managing their own affairs, pupils receive rich educational returns from the experiences they have in living and working together for common, social purposes.

The homeroom likewise functions in promoting other phases of the extracurricular program. The annual or semiannual selection of activities in which students prefer to participate, such as various clubs, special committees, and school assemblies, is handled through the homeroom. Group and individual guidance may be given regarding the nature and worth of the several offerings before any selections are made. Students may be

encouraged to form groups of their own and to petition for the establishment of new and interesting activities. Parents are often invited to discuss their son's or daughter's choices. Under these conditions there is a reasonable assurance that pupils will engage in extracurricular activities best fitted to their individual needs and interests. At the same time, the stimulation and attention given by the homeroom teacher to these activities contributes a good deal to the success of the entire program.

The Assembly

Another important aspect of the extracurricular program is the school assembly. It is there that students and faculty come together as a unit for the review, exploration, and consideration of life in the school community. Programs are presented depicting curricular and extracurricular activities, common problems are openly discussed, entertainments are given, student projects are promoted, and prominent persons are introduced. The results of carefully planned and well-directed assemblies are significant. Better school spirit is produced, new ideas and interests stimulated, practices in democratic citizenship provided, correlation between different fields of learning encouraged, and numerous experiences offered for the many students who share in the preparation and presentation of assembly programs.

The assembly makes its fullest contribution to the educative process when it is planned by students, under teacher guidance, for the students of the school. They preside at its meetings, plan the programs, present the programs, arrange the seating, supervise assembly conduct, and evaluate the worth of what they have done. Given this authority, they take pride in the assembly and work hard to make it worth while. Every boy and girl feels that he or she has a part in it and a responsibility for its success.

However, students need guidance and assistance in undertaking the control and direction of assembly programs. Precautions must be taken against poorly planned and educationally unsound assemblies, and programs that are unrelated to the life of the school. Thoughtful faculty advisers must work with

students through established officers and committees, helping them when help is needed, offering constructive suggestions from time to time, instructing them in the techniques of program planning, and pointing out the strengths and weaknesses of their proposals. Above all, the faculty adviser must be a person who can give direction to the activities of students without dominating what they do.

PRINCIPLES AND PRACTICES

Where formerly the extracurricular program was looked upon as something for pupils outside of the curriculum, today it is regarded as an integral part of the entire educational situation. Any activity or experience that is thought to possess learning values consistent with a given philosophy of education may claim a place in the program. The reason is that educational purposes have been rather clearly defined, and toward these purposes the entire curriculum, including all allied activities, is planned and administered. Although the curricular program, strictly speaking, still constitutes the core of the experiences and activities in which pupils are expected to participate, many schools have incorporated extracurricular activities in the regular subject and experience offerings, and others have come to view them as essential correlates to sound instruction. Accordingly, any extracurricular activity is evaluated not in terms of the degree to which it arouses the interest and support of pupils alone, its publicity value, or the numbers taking part, but principally in terms of the contribution it makes to one or more of the fundamental purposes of the total educational program. In fact, the entire extracurricular program is curricular in the sense that it is recognized as an important means of attaining significant educational ends instead of serving merely as a source of recreation and entertainment for pupils.

General Principles

One of the primary distinctions between curricular and extracurricular activities, in a large percentage of schools, is the absence of compulsion and formality in the conduct of the latter.

In consequence of this difference, much of the value associated with the extracurricular program is there because learning experiences are initiated and carried through by pupils who have definite interests and purposes they wish to satisfy. If such activities do make an important contribution to the general purposes of education—frequently in a fashion superior to regular studies—this is certainly an outcome that stems from the basic principle of building learning experiences around the interests, purposes, and needs of pupils. The elimination of these features would, in all probability, formalize the extracurricular program and devitalize it as badly as some parts of the curricular program. It appears that our mania for organization, administrative machinery, rules and regulations, records, and autocratic supervision has robbed the extracurricular program of its very life in schools where real educational leadership is lacking.

There cannot be any set pattern of extracurricular activities or any uniform plan for their conduct which fits the needs of pupils in all schools. Standardization is the one thing that should be avoided. The size of the school is not an important factor, for the effectiveness of the program is not judged in these terms. The number of activities need not be large or greatly varied. The important point is that each school must work out its own program in keeping with the nature and interests of the student body, individually and collectively. The activities provided should grow out of the interests of the pupils, and in so far as possible, they should be started by them. This means, of course, that a good program often takes time to develop; that it cannot be worked up overnight and handed ready made to those whom it is to serve. Such a procedure defeats the very purpose for the program and throttles interest and enthusiasm in it.

In appraising the worth of the extracurricular program, each activity must be judged in terms of the degree to which it represents a wholesome and effective means for pupil expression and the extent to which it contributes definitely to changes in the conduct, thinking, attitudes, interests, needs, and knowledge of the pupils involved. Consideration must likewise be given

to economy of time, money, and effort, and the avoidance of duplication. In the final analysis, the administrator will look for the largest educational return with a minimum of financial outlay and the least possible lost motion.

Most administrators and teachers are agreed that a satisfactory program can be achieved only when the responsibility for its control and direction is clearly defined and centered in a particular person. This responsibility can be either retained by the principal or delegated by him to an administrative assistant or member of the faculty. The final responsibility and authority, however, must remain with the principal, since he is charged with the entire educational program and must answer to the superintendent for the actions of all agents and agencies operating under his leadership. In small school systems, the superintendent or supervising principal will retain final authority in matters affecting the administration of the program. Centralization of responsibility, in any case, does not preclude teacher and pupil participation in the organization and management of the program. As a matter of fact, teacher and pupils should play a prominent part in planning and carrying out the program. To do this successfully, the principal, his assistant, or the faculty director of the program must be willing to delegate full responsibility within assigned limits to faculty advisers and students. They must be given the right to plan the program, to make decisions that count, and to carry out the details of the program. Unless this condition prevails, interest wanes, learning opportunities are lost, and support for the program suffers accordingly. Usually, when programs lack faculty and student enthusiasm, or they are engaged in perfunctorily, the cause can be found in the policies followed by the principal of the school. He is either indifferent to the program, ignorant of its potential possibilities, inconsistent in his actions regarding it, or definitely unwilling to relinquish any administrative control over its development and operation. Some principals guard so zealously their authority as head of the school that they overlook, in this petty devotion to a power complex, the real reason why schools exist. Many of them

never learn that the only true path to functional learning on the part of boys and girls in school is through the realness of the experiences that are provided for them.

Pupil Participation

How should the participation of pupils in extracurricular activities be determined? Obviously, if these activities possess the values claimed, every pupil should have an opportunity to participate. Moreover, his participation should be varied enough and extensive enough to make possible growth toward the approximation of several educational purposes. On the other hand, it is clear that pupil participation in extracurricular activities cannot go entirely ungoverned, if a desirable balance is to be maintained between the curricular and extracurricular program, and the health and welfare of the pupil are to be protected against too heavy a load or the unwise selection of activities in relation to personal needs.

Extracurricular activities, like academic work, sometimes appeal most to those who are least in need of their benefits. The problem then becomes one of enlisting the interest and active support of all pupils while restraining those who would carry their participation to undesirable extremes. Actually the program should attract the voluntary interest and engage the wholehearted enthusiasm of every pupil. But this is rarely the case, for many reasons, and as a result artificial motivation is resorted to within acceptable limits.

Three general approaches to the problem of stimulating interest and increasing participation have been made. Pupils have been required to engage in far more extracurricular activities, credit has been given to encourage participation, or some system of honors and awards has been employed. Where these procedures have been employed, the disadvantages show themselves quickly. Enthusiastic support for an activity cannot be compelled, and participation without interest or without a right on the part of pupils to have a voice in what is offered yields small educational profits. The granting of credit falls in the same category as compulsory membership in activities, especially when

a certain amount of credit is made a requirement for graduation. However, when credit is granted in excess of graduation requirements and its acquisition is made optional, the plan operates in much the same manner as a system of honors and awards.

Most beginning teachers are familiar with the types of specialized awards offered for taking part in extracurricular programs, particularly the athletic letter and similar symbols of accomplishment. Though this system is traditionally fostered in most secondary schools, an honor-point system that gives some weight to scholarship is favored in several high schools. Under this system, an attempt is made to equate the points earned in various activities. Scholarship marks carry weighted points, citizenship is rated on a scale of points, and participation in activities is recognized in the same way with the number of points received graduated in accordance with the time required by the activity and the responsibilities of the participant. For example, a football team captain may receive three points, a team player two points, and a squad member one point. A pupil taking part in a one-act play may be given one point and another taking part in a three-act play may get three points. At the close of the senior year all points earned are added together for each member of the graduating class. A certain percentage of the class, with the highest number of honor points, are designated as "honor students."

A number of schools use a different kind of point system to limit the extent of pupil participation in extracurricular activities. This is done for at least two sound reasons. Unless limitations are imposed, some pupils are almost certain either to overemphasize this side of their school life at the expense of the regular program or to undergo voluntary or imposed exploitation because they are competent leaders whose services are always in demand. Besides these considerations, limiting the extent of individual participation is likely to result in a more general distribution of opportunities for participation on the part of the entire student body.

On the basis of this reasoning, regulative plans have been developed and placed in operation by school administrators.

These range from simple limitations respecting the number of activities in which a pupil may participate to detailed point systems of various types. As a rule, point systems of this kind are worked out on the estimated bases of time required and responsibility involved in each activity. A critical score is determined beyond which no pupil may go who is carrying a full schedule. In other words, he may take part in as many activities as the total of the points assigned to these activities will permit. If they add up to more than the critical score some of them must be dropped.

In trying to evaluate the effectiveness of the administrative means adopted for meeting the various problems involved in managing and guiding the extracurricular program, the prospective teacher must always keep in mind that their value can be judged only in terms of their contribution to the instructional process. The more effective functioning of the extracurricular program is the real justification for point systems, awards, and other devices. Administrative machinery as an end in itself and control for the sake of control are antagonistic to the educational merits of a sound instructional program.

FINANCING EXTRACURRICULAR ACTIVITIES

Despite the educational values attributed to extracurricular activities, their financial support is not usually provided from regular school funds. The board of education, it is true, furnishes certain equipment and pays the salaries of the instructional personnel, but such items as costumes, uniforms, special equipment, materials, and publications must be financed with funds raised by students. These funds come from fees charged for admission to special events and from subscriptions to school publications. Plays, concerts, dances, athletic events, and the sale of student association tickets—which admit the holder to all school events—yield, for the most part, the income needed to support the extracurricular program. This is done without imposing a heavy burden upon students or upon adults who pay admission charges to school affairs.

There has been a strong tendency in recent years to charge ad-

mission fees comparable in size to those charged by commercial entertainers. The public has apparently been willing to pay these high charges, for otherwise schools could not continue to fill the bleachers of their playing fields or the seats of their auditoriums. It is unfortunate, however, that some schools operate their extracurricular activities like commercial enterprises. The high prices asked often bar many parents from attendance and evoke unfavorable reactions in the community. It would be better if the entire extracurricular program were underwritten by the board of education with only very nominal fees charged for all events open both to students and the public. This would be in keeping with the educational values claimed in justification of the extracurricular program.

Since the present system of financing the activities program rests upon funds raised by students, the problem arises of how the money that is raised should be administered within the school. Procedures must be adopted which protect students against temptation and, at the same time, inculcate in them an understanding and respect for accurate and businesslike methods of accounting for money.

It is generally accepted as good practice now to have a central treasurer through whom all student funds are channeled. The treasurer conducts his affairs in accordance with the procedures underlying a sound system of accounting. Where this arrangement is followed, the person responsible for the funds raised in each activity is required to deposit all monies received with the central treasurer. A ledger credit for the deposit is made and statements are issued periodically showing deposits, withdrawals, and balances. The money received by the central treasurer is placed in a single, extracurricular account of some outside bank. All disbursements are made by check from this account after payment has been authorized either by the principal, the treasurer, the activity sponsor, or some other person or persons designated for this purpose.

Even though all funds are kept in a common bank account, the amounts withdrawn for the support of each activity are limited to definite budgetary allowances. These allowances are deter-

mined annually by the principal, the treasurer, or by a committee of the student council. If students are permitted to handle their own funds, each activity group is usually required to submit an itemized statement of its proposed budget each year. It must justify its proposed budget before the student committee and abide by the committee's ruling. All activity budgets, as approved by the committee, are transmitted to the central treasurer; each disbursement thereafter is charged against the amounts allowed to the various activity groups. If occasions arise whereby additional funds are needed by a particular activity group, a special hearing is arranged with the budget committee and the request is reviewed. It may be granted, modified, or rejected. At the close of the school year all unused funds remaining in activity budgets revert to the common fund.

Such a system removes all temptation from pupils and others concerned with extracurricular finances, protects all from false accusations regarding the handling of funds, and serves as a most valuable means for developing honesty, trustworthiness, thrift, responsibility, and business knowledge of accounting and financial procedures.

SPONSORING EXTRACURRICULAR ACTIVITIES

The success or failure of the extracurricular program depends most upon the quality of leadership carried on by faculty members who sponsor various activities. Appointed as they are by the principal of the school to guide and direct the learning experiences of pupils taking part in the program, their responsibilities are no different from those of a regular classroom teacher. They face the same problem of fitting the program to the needs and interests of pupils, providing suitable learning experiences, encouraging leadership, promoting initiative, and guiding pupil growth toward a fuller realization of educational ideals.

Characteristics of a Good Sponsor

A good sponsor has several definite characteristics. He is democratic in his relations with pupils, alert to the handling of

essential details, and sensitive about the educational values of the activity. He is always willing to give the time and attention required for meeting individual problems and planning together with members of the group. He sets a fine example of leadership by his own conduct and concerns himself with the personal and social development of each pupil. He substitutes as far as possible pupil self-direction for arbitrary forms of control and stimulates members of the group to organize their own program. In all of this, a warm sense of friendly and wholesome relationships permeates the learning situation. Whatever success is achieved by pupils receives encouraging recognition and serves as an incentive for further effort. In short, a good sponsor is a good teacher.

Preparation for Sponsorship

The rapid increase in the number of extracurricular activities in recent years and the values placed upon them in the school curriculum make it essential that the beginning teacher be adequately prepared for sponsorship. He should have a thorough and practical knowledge of at least two different activities. The knowledge of these activities should be acquired preferably through personal participation in the extracurricular program of secondary schools, colleges, and community organizations.

Besides this background of practical experience, he should be a student of the age group with whom he plans to work. He should know a good deal about how they grow, what they are really like, the things they enjoy doing, the problems common to their developmental level, the behaviors peculiar to them, and many other factors underlying the learning and adjustment process.

He should likewise have a fine command of the methods and techniques used in the social group work approach to learning. This approach is strictly a concern for the democratic process in situations involving several persons who come together for some commonly accepted purpose. As Du Vall has pointed out, "Both the objectives and the methods for their attainment must

be understood by both the leader and the followers if the process is to be truly democratic.”³ In using group work methods, the sponsor must be accepted as the leader of the group. But this leadership must not mean that he dominates the group. Instead, because of his superior knowledge, skill, and maturity, he is accepted as a source of counsel and assistance, and a stimulant to the group. He helps them to define what they wish to do, to select the means needed for achieving their purposes, to use information he can supply, and to evaluate how well they have carried on their own program. In all of this, he is able to influence attitudes and behavior without using coercion or undue influence to bring about acceptable standards of conduct. He accepts pupils as they are, shows respect for their personalities, identifies himself with their problems, and aids in the interpretation of their ways of thinking and their relationship to one another. It is when leadership by a sponsor follows this type of pattern that the program is most likely to succeed.

It is not enough, however, that the teacher alone shall have this broad preparation for sponsoring extracurricular activities. If the program in total is to succeed, every member of the teaching staff must recognize its close relationship to the curricular program and familiarize himself with the purposes of the whole undertaking. Unity of purpose and proper co-ordination must characterize the extracurricular program among the entire instructional personnel of the school.

RELATED READINGS

Bailard, Virginia and McKown, H. C., *So You Were Elected*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1946.

This book was written for high school pupils. It deals with various aspects and problems of student leadership, including student officers and committee chairmen, the conducting of meetings, committee work, and many other activities. The style is informal and the language used appeals to students.

Charters, W. W. and Harvey, C. C., “The 12 Questions on the

³ Everett W. Du Vall, *Personality and Social Group Work*, p. 205. New York: Association Press, 1943.

Future of Our Extra-Curricular Program," *The Clearing House*, 19:3-7. September, 1944.

The questions and answers given are of general interest to all teachers and administrators interested in the extracurricular program.

Crakes, C. R., "Commencement is Coming!" *School Executive*, 62:38-39. November, 1942.

Explains how students should help to plan commencement programs and what these programs have been like in Moline, Illinois.

Douglass, Aubrey A., *The American School System*, Chap. 5. New York: Farrar & Rinehart, Inc., 1940.

Contains a detailed description of several extracurricular activities. Relationship of these activities to the curriculum is clearly pointed out.

Du Vall, Everett W., *Personality and Social Group Work*. New York: Association Press, 1943.

The contributions of social group work practice for education are many. Some idea may be gotten from this book how—even in mass education, formal or informal—the educational process may include more of an individual approach. The concepts and suggestions outlined here can be read with profit by teachers and administrators.

Ford, Pearl L. and Bryan, Roy C., "A Student Council Grows in Responsibility," *The Clearing House*, 19:151-156. November, 1944.

Describes the growth of a student council at Western State High School, Kalamazoo, Michigan. Emphasizes the delegation of authority to the student council.

Harvey, C. C. and Allen, Charles F., "The 20 Questions Most-Asked on Student Government," *The Clearing House*, 18:67-71. October, 1943.

The questions most frequently asked on student government problems are stated and answered. The questions are based upon an analysis of the correspondence files of the National Association of Student Councils.

Kelley, Earl C., "Too Many Safeguards Kill Student Government," *The Clearing House*, 18:195-197. December, 1943.

A refutation of the position taken by Harvey and Allen in their article on "The 20 Questions on Student Government."

McKown, H. C., *Extra-Curricular Activities*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1937.

One of the publications in this field which has much value for students of the extracurricular program.

———, *Activities in the Elementary School*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1938.

The methods used for beginning extracurricular activities in the elementary school are covered as well as the details of the program itself. Also contains helpful information on supervising and evaluating the program.

Otto, H. J. and Hamrin, S. A., *Co-Curricular Activities in Elementary Schools*. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., 1937.

Tells how various types of activities may be organized in the elementary school.

Riebe, H. A., Nelson, M. J., and Kittrell, C. A., *The Classroom*, Chap. 14. New York: The Dryden Press, Inc., 1938.

Contains several practical suggestions which the beginning teacher will find helpful.

Smith, Enid S., "A Procedure for Appraising Clubs," *School Review*, 48:108-118. February, 1940.

Practical suggestions for determining how effective your club program has operated.

Smith, Maurice M., Standley, L. L., and Hughes, Cecil L., *Junior High School Education*, Chap. 9. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1942.

Various types of extracurricular activities suitable for junior high school pupils are outlined together with a number of considerations that enter into the administration of the program.

Spears, Harold, *Secondary Education in American Life*, Chaps. 8, 9. New York: American Book Company, 1941.

Both the traditional arrangement of the extracurricular program and the modern methods of incorporating activities in the curriculum are discussed.

Chapter 13

GUIDING PUPILS

GUIDANCE OCCUPIES an important place in the program of elementary and secondary education. So important is its place that every beginning teacher should be thoroughly familiar with the guidance point of view and skilled in the application of principles and techniques essential to the performance of its services. In order to assist the beginning teacher in developing an understanding and appreciation of the guidance program, attention will be given throughout this chapter to the meaning of guidance, the need for guidance services, how these services are organized and administered, the opportunities for guidance in the classroom, and the techniques used in guidance and counseling.

THE MEANING OF GUIDANCE

The meaning of guidance has been a subject of some confusion among many teachers and administrators. In their thinking, it has often been associated almost completely with the vocational direction of pupils. Its services have been limited to formal instruction dealing with an orientation to the world of work, to the making of vocational decisions, to the selection of specialized courses, and to placement in jobs that fit given interests and backgrounds of preparation. This conception of guidance is expressed rather clearly in the following quotation:

The immediately pre-adolescent and adolescent years of the child are normally a period of expanding and shifting interest, one in which vocational choices are often arrived at without adequate knowledge of the actual demands of the occupation, and hence one where guidance based upon the meeting point

of occupational demands and the individual's capacities assume a crucial role.¹

Guidance has likewise been associated with the idea of helping pupils plan their educational future. Beginning in the elementary grades, the child is expected to develop an awareness of his own capabilities, the educational ends toward which his school career should be directed, and the means available for attaining these objectives. By the eighth or ninth grade, his educational outlook should be fairly well defined. Under existing conditions, he is required to indicate the curriculum he wishes to follow in senior high school and to choose elective courses, preferably related to his educational program for the future. The guidance problem accordingly becomes one of helping each pupil decide where he wants to go and what he needs to get there.

At the same time, teachers, class advisers, and counselors undertake several activities related to educational guidance. They review scholastic records, check upon eligibility for graduation and standards for college entrance, carry on remedial instruction with prospective failures, facilitate the transfer of pupils from one curriculum to another, bring about a balance between curricular and extracurricular activities, and do many other things to direct and improve the educational careers of high school youth.

A considerable amount of attention has been given to the adjustive side of the guidance program. This has been done in recognition of the fact that many boys and girls are either unadjusted or maladjusted in school. Adjustment difficulties frequently begin in the first grade and continue through the twelfth, unless corrective means are used to overcome them as soon as they appear. Although the classroom teacher is not trained to work with adjustment cases, he is able to note the symptoms and to seek specialized service from counselors and outside consultants in severe cases. In many problems of personal and so-

¹ Giles M. Ruch, and David Segel, *Minimum Essentials of the Individual Inventory in Guidance*, p. 15. U. S. Office of Education, Vocational Division Bulletin No. 202. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1940.

cial adjustment, the classroom teacher is able to bring about a satisfactory change in individual pupils without utilizing the services of specialists.

Besides the individualized approach to educational, vocational, and adjustive guidance problems, frequent reference is made to group guidance—problems and situations common to groups of pupils. These problems are handled impersonally in a group rather than individually. They cut across all areas of living. Through this means useful information is disseminated, conflicting interests and viewpoints are resolved, and action planned for the solution of group problems.

This brief overview of the meaning of guidance makes it apparent that the term *guidance* is difficult to define. However, some attempts have been made to give a precise meaning to the guidance concept. Chisholm states that "guidance seeks to help the individual discover his own talents in comparison to the opportunities of the world and help him prepare himself so that he can find or develop a place in which he can live a well-balanced life and contribute his part to the welfare of his fellow man."² It would appear that his definition is based upon the assumption that there is a place for everyone in the world and that the job of the school is to help the individual find that place and make the most of it, both for himself and society.

Traxler places a somewhat similar emphasis upon the function of guidance in defining guidance as that which enables "each individual to understand his abilities and interests, to develop them as well as possible and to relate them to life goals, and finally to reach a state of complete and mature self-guidance as a desirable member of the social order."³

A more detailed conception of guidance is found in a statement prepared by Ruch and Segel:

On the elementary-school level, guidance is predominately educational guidance, broadly viewed as encompassing the ob-

²Leslie L. Chisholm, *Guiding Youth in the Secondary School*, p. 3. New York: American Book Company, 1945.

³Arthur E. Traxler, Editor, *Guidance in Public Secondary Schools*, p. xi. New York: Educational Records Bureau, 1939.

jectives of physical and mental health, well-rounded social development, proper use of leisure time, and mastery of the fundamental school processes.

To these objectives, on the secondary level, is added the guidance that facilitates the choice of an occupation, or way of making a living, whether it be one of the semiskilled, skilled, technical, or professional occupations.⁴

It would seem fair to conclude from these definitions and the descriptions of guidance services previously given that guidance is a term used to describe all the activities carried on by a school in which the personal and social development of each pupil is the foremost consideration.

THE NEED FOR GUIDANCE

The need for guidance arises from the vast range of personal and social problems found among pupils in elementary and secondary schools. In analyzing the reasons for these differences, it is necessary to take into account the nature of individual differences, the educational program of the school, and the conditions under which living takes place today.

Individual Differences

It is an obvious and established fact that individuals differ widely in every trait and characteristic known to man. They differ in such factors as height, weight, intellect, tastes, interests, emotional stability, and various modes of behavior. The spread of intelligence, for example, descends from genius at the top to idiocy at the bottom, with clearly recognized degrees of intellectuality spread between these two extremes. Moreover, the range of difference for any other known trait or characteristic follows a similar pattern of distribution.

Except for those individuals who are institutionalized because they are unable to function within the framework of the school, the pupil population reflects differences similar to those found among the population at large. Teachers are confronted with

⁴ Giles M. Ruch, and David Segel, *op. cit.*, p. 1.

significant variations among pupils in their rate of learning, method of learning, capacity for learning, response to stimuli, ability in oral and written expression, social sensitivity, critical thinking, command of tool subjects, social attitudes, physical and mental health, and numerous other traits and characteristics. To meet these differences successfully is a difficult task and one requiring that the teacher create learning situations and provide learning experiences fitted to individual needs and abilities. No longer can the teacher confine his efforts only to subject-matter instruction when it is apparent that the nature of the individual and his relationship to society must be the point of departure for all learning.

The Nature of the School

The tremendous growth in elementary and secondary school enrollments during the last 50 years has increased further the need for guidance.⁵ To a great extent this growth took place as a result of a widespread, popular belief in the value of an education. Laws were enacted in the several states increasing the compulsory school-age requirements and raising the standards of employment for child labor. Thousands and thousands of children and youth were forced into the schools by these laws and held there for longer periods of time. A large percentage of these young people did not have the ability required for taking an academic program; they were interested in getting out of school as soon as the law would permit and going to work for the sake of the money they could earn. Since the existing curriculum had been built for a more select group of pupils whose outlook was that of going to college, the school found itself poorly equipped to meet the needs and interests of the new group.

Although some adjustments were made to meet this problem in the elementary school, the most radical changes were made at the secondary level where enrollments rose to unprecedented heights. According to a report of the National Survey of Secondary Education, course offerings in 35 selected high schools

⁵ See Chapter I for figures on enrollment increases.

increased in number approximately 500 per cent over a period of 25 years.⁶ This increase was more or less typical of the changes that took place throughout the country. As a consequence, the breadth of subject offerings for noncollege preparatory students came to include such courses as printing, cabinet-making, music appreciation, retail selling, ceramics, carpentry, masonry, agriculture, clothing design, plumbing, child care, domestic service, stenography, auto mechanics, commercial art, accounting, and scores of others. The mere existence of so many courses made it difficult for pupils to plan their high school programs wisely and created the need for assistance of teachers skilled in educational guidance.

While this expansion was taking place, departmental organization was adopted as an administrative device for the efficient handling of masses of students. In high schools it called for a student schedule of four regular subjects daily plus physical education and extracurricular activities. Each subject was taught by a different teacher who was regarded as a specialist in his field. At the end of each semester or school year a new schedule of courses was prepared with a new set of teachers for the subjects to be taken. Under this arrangement, the student had little opportunity of getting acquainted with his teachers, and they, in turn, had little opportunity of getting acquainted with him. In fact, teachers came to know best those students who were either failing their courses or who were disciplinary cases. The same system dominates the organization of the secondary school today. The impersonal nature of departmental organization, with subject-centered teaching, has been criticized severely by modern educators. They point out the need for more attention to the personal and social problems of students and less attention to the assimilation of factual content. They recommend the elimination of departmentalization and the substitution of a core or general education program—at least through the tenth grade—so that students may be with the same

⁶ A. K. Loomis, Edwin S. Linde, and Lamar B. Johnson, *The Program of Studies*. National Survey of Secondary Education, Monograph 19, 1932. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1933.

teacher for longer blocks of time each day. Not only would this arrangement permit teachers to know their students better, but also it would foster the development of a curriculum fitted to their needs and interests. These educators prefer, in other words, to look upon learning as a guidance process.

There is a convincing body of evidence behind the recommendation that the traditional program in secondary education be eliminated or greatly modified for the majority of students. Many of them, lacking the ability to pass courses required for graduation, have been classified as failures, whereas others have suffered the same fate by being forced to take subjects in which they saw little, if any, real value. Poor mental and physical health, chronic frustration, a natural dislike for learning, truancy, and various forms of unsocial behavior have likewise been the products of this program. A large number of youth have dropped out of school, often with encouragement from teachers who do not know how to handle them or how to motivate an interest in the subjects they are being taught. It is not unusual to find as many as one third of a ninth or tenth grade class leaving upon reaching the legal age of employment. This is not surprising in view of the emphasis placed upon academic accomplishment, even in vocational courses, and the utter disregard for the personal and social needs of the learners. If the curriculum was made functional for these pupils and instruction was approached from a guidance point of view, a much more wholesome situation would prevail.

Difficulties like those described above are not restricted to students who follow a noncollege preparatory program. Many students enrolled in the college preparatory program fail the prescribed subjects of study because of the academic standards they are compelled to meet. It might be expected that those who survive this curriculum and go on to college would show outstanding achievement at the higher level. The facts, however, reveal that the percentage of failure among college freshmen and sophomores is entirely too high, and that too little attention has been paid to the nature of the individual in his high school preparation. Certainly any decision to go to college

should be backed up with careful thought and detailed planning, since the decision is an important one for any young person to make.

Social Conditions

Many guidance problems arise from the highly complex nature of the social and cultural conditions under which living takes place today. One such problem is that of the vocational orientation, selection, and placement of youth in employment after leaving school. Confronted by hundreds of different occupations in business and industry, youth must be introduced to the world of work and taught how to choose wisely types of employment best fitted to given backgrounds of experience, preparation, aptitudes, and interests. They must learn to evaluate various job opportunities, taking into consideration monetary rewards, promotion opportunities, retirement provisions, labor turnover, working conditions, preparation required, and personal qualifications essential to success. Each of these considerations, with its related parts, must be included in a total program of vocational guidance. When a young person is finally ready for job placement he should know what he wants to do and be prepared to do it. The guidance he has received should facilitate his adjustment to employment and help to make him a more efficient and happy worker.

In addition to the problem of vocational orientation and adjustment, youth must face many other personal and social questions that arise as a result of certain social developments. Among the social developments that challenge the school are (1) the buying and consuming of goods and services in a world of spurious advertising and conflicting claims about an astonishingly large variety of products; (2) the communication and distortion of ideas with their resultant affect upon public beliefs and opinions; (3) the techniques and methods of propaganda commonly used by special-interest groups to further their own welfare at public expense; (4) the conservation of human and natural resources in a nation with a history of wastefulness; (5) the social processes at work which influence community life and de-

fine the limits within which our actions may take place; (6) the need for understanding different racial and religious groups and the contributions they have made to our culture; (7) the need for appreciating more deeply the ideals underlying our way of life and how these ideals can find a fuller expression in daily affairs; (8) the problems associated with family life, health, international relations, labor and management, housing, recreation, and government. Each of these has both a personal and a social meaning involving the need for guidance services and curricular provisions, if youth are to live successfully in their world.

THE ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION OF GUIDANCE

In organizing and administering the guidance program provision must be made for meeting the totality of problems that arise from the complete educational process. These problems cover the fields of healthful living, education, social living, vocational direction, and ethical conduct. They are sometimes referred to as the physical, mental, social, emotional, and spiritual aspects of personality. All of these problems are interwoven with the instructional process and cannot be disassociated from it without neglecting or subordinating them. This does not mean that specialized services have no place in the guidance program, but rather that some phases may be formalized when the need for specialized services is evident. The teacher, however, must remain the most important professional agent in the administration of the guidance program.

The principal likewise has an important role in the organization and administration of guidance. Being responsible to the superintendent for the success or failure of the program, he acts as the co-ordinator of all that is done and the administrator of special services which he delegates to highly trained personnel. He may delegate authority for various phases of guidance to the assistant principal, department heads, deans, class advisers, counselors, visiting teachers, psychologists, and psychiatrists.

A simplified pattern of organization for guidance purposes places the major work with the classroom teacher, the central responsibility for each pupil with the homeroom or core teacher,

special case studies with the counselor, and co-ordinate informational service with the visiting teacher. Supplementary personnel may be added as they are required by the needs of particular school situations. The simplicity of this organizational

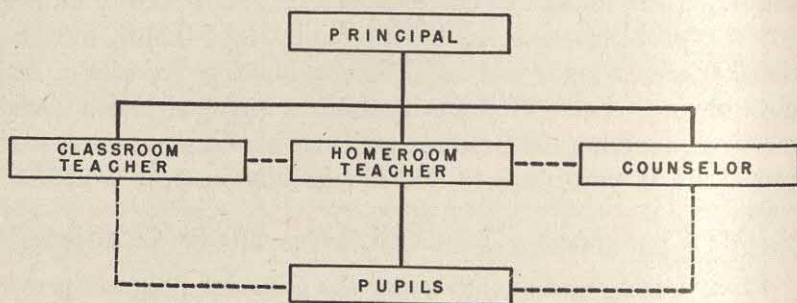


FIGURE 31. A Simplified Plan of Organization for Guidance Services.

arrangement is illustrated in Figure 31, and another type of guidance organization is shown in Figure 32. The difference between these two arrangements is found in the responsibilities assigned to various personnel.

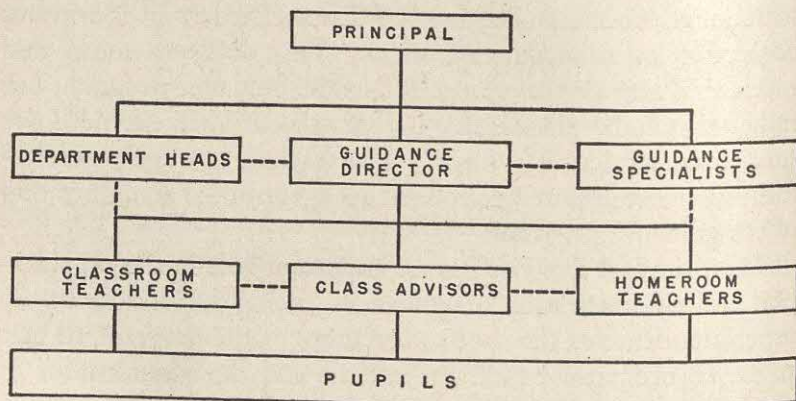


FIGURE 32. A Plan of Organization for Guidance Services.

The Classroom Teacher

Since guidance problems are interwoven with instructional activity, the most valuable contribution to guidance is made by the classroom teacher when learning is looked upon as guidance. As Chisholm points out:

In the school in which the classroom teacher assumes responsibility for guidance, there is no forbidden ground dividing his instruction and guidance responsibilities. . . . The teacher helps pupils study their own abilities, select work, appraise their own progress, and the other things necessary in an adequate program of guidance. In the actual classroom work, then, the teacher is sensitive to and understands the level of interest and ability of the pupils and adapts the work to individual needs or helps the student revise his choice of school activities so as to get those experiences in harmony with his needs.⁷

This quality of guidance thrives best in an atmosphere of friendliness where the relationship of child and teacher is based upon mutual understanding of educational purposes and respect for personality. Sometimes the guidance process is carried on most effectively through direct teaching or direct counseling. At other times, indirect methods are necessary, including the services of specialists for making diagnoses and suggesting remedial procedures.

The prospective teacher who wishes to approach teaching from the guidance point of view must understand fully how pupils grow and what they are like. Since they differ widely in needs, interests, and capacities, the teacher must be concerned not only with the general needs and interests of a group, but also with the constellation of needs, the variety of manifest and potential interests, and the capacities or abilities of each individual within the group.

How does the teacher go about discovering the needs, interests, and capacities of children? Redl suggests that teachers start their study of pupils with an inventory of what they know about them.⁸ By recording significant observations of behavior, describing their knowledge of individuals, and using available school records they can soon come to recognize significant de-

⁷Leslie L. Chisholm, *op. cit.*, p. 316.

⁸Fritz Redl, *What Should We Know About a Child?*, p. 3. Lansing, Michigan: The Michigan Cooperative Teacher Education Study, 1941. See also, Fritz Redl, *Helping Teachers Study Their Children*. Lansing, Michigan: The Michigan Cooperative Teacher Education Study, 1941; and, *Helping Teachers Understand Children*, Washington: American Council on Education, 1945.

velopmental patterns of growth and conduct and can determine what additional types of data are necessary for understanding their needs. In making so basic a study, teachers will want to know, among other things, the home background, parental attitudes, nature of family life, previous school history, significant experiences, mental and physical health, relations with others in the group, prominent personality and character traits, and any other information that will explain the actions and attitudes of pupils. A good deal of help in this work can be gotten when a group of teachers center their attention upon a given child—as a means for gathering information useful in understanding other children—and exchange their knowledge, verify their interpretations of data, set up working generalizations about children and put them to a test in actual classroom practice. They can also find help in published studies on childhood and adolescence and the experiences that teachers in other school systems have had with this procedure.

A more direct approach to the problem of pupil needs can be made through using questionnaires, interviews, anecdotal records, discussions, and school records. The data obtained by these means should reveal needs and interests grouped around such considerations as the following:

1. The forces that shape biological and social living.
2. Cultural relationships.
3. Success in getting along with people.
4. Work and study methods.
5. Quality of critical thinking.
6. Occupational choices.
7. Understanding of self.
8. Viewpoints toward life.
9. Attitudes toward marriage and family life.
10. Recreational pursuits.
11. Condition of physical health.
12. Reasons for various types of behavior.

Though the methods used for studying pupils' needs may vary, teachers who engage in this procedure make a better guidance approach to learning. Their thinking centers on the nature

of the pupil instead of the subject. They are sensitive to factors affecting mental health and the influence of their own attitudes on pupils. Learning is evaluated continuously in terms of behavior changes produced in pupils, where the process of learning is valued as much as the product of learning. The problems for study and investigation have their roots in the real-life needs of the learner. Mass methods of teaching give way to small group and individualized activities having purposes that are satisfying to the participants. Guidance and learning become one and the same thing.

The Homeroom Teacher

The guidance activities of the classroom teacher are complementary to those of the homeroom teacher to whom the major responsibility for administering the guidance program is assigned. This is functionally a desirable arrangement since the homeroom teacher theoretically takes the place of the parent in all matters concerning the welfare of the pupil in school. It is also a logical outgrowth of departmental organization for the simple reason that the traditional subject specialist is too much concerned with his subject and has too many pupils in classes to give time or thought to their needs. Unless the pupil is assigned to a homeroom teacher, there is no other person to whom he can turn for help or who can give to him the sense of security that he desires.

The guidance functions of the homeroom teacher are taken over in some secondary schools by class advisers, although most class advisers are limited in their expression of guidance services to the planning of pupils' schedules, the reviewing of school marks, and selection of institutions for higher learning. Their work is supplemented by deans of students, and counselors to whom pupils are assigned for particular types of problems.

A different arrangement is found in schools having core and other types of integrated curriculums. In these schools, all functions of the homeroom teacher are absorbed by the classroom teacher. This is possible because the approach to learning is completely a guidance approach. Experiences are developed around the needs and interests of pupils, and pupils are with the

same teacher for several periods each day. Until this type of curriculum is more general, it would seem better to concentrate the administrative responsibility for individual and group guidance in the homeroom teacher.

If the homeroom is made a guidance center, then the pupils who are placed in a given homeroom should remain with the same homeroom teacher for the length of time they are in school. This would mean three years in junior and three years in senior high school, or six years if the two units are combined. The advantage of having a pupil remain with the same teacher each year grows out of the fact that the teacher gets to know the pupil much more intimately than is possible if the pupil is assigned to a new homeroom teacher annually. It has been argued, however, that this works a hardship on both the teacher and the pupil who have personality conflicts. Notwithstanding the validity of this argument, the low percentage of pupils who fall into this category can be shifted to another homeroom without destroying the worth of the system for the large majority.

The homeroom teacher's knowledge of each pupil comes from the pivotal relationship of the homeroom to the other aspects of the guidance program. Significant descriptions of positive and negative forms of pupil behavior should be reported to the homeroom teacher by every classroom teacher, custodian, clerk, or other person who comes into contact with the pupil. This can be done on forms provided which contain space for a brief description or anecdote of the behavior. Cumulatively, these anecdotes enable the homeroom teacher to study beginning patterns of behavior or to judge whether established modes of conduct are undergoing change. They likewise serve as a factual basis for counseling with the pupil and the parent on problems that need attention.

Problems that are too difficult for the homeroom teacher to handle, and which call for the application of specialized knowledge and techniques, are referred to the counselor. They are accompanied by the cumulative record of the pupil's history together with other information about his health, family, and social background. After the counselor has made a careful diag-

nosis of the case, his recommendations are forwarded to the homeroom teacher. Steps are then taken by the homeroom teacher to put the recommendations into practice.

Individual counseling and guidance in the homeroom are supplemented by group guidance activities during regularly scheduled meetings. These activities usually consist of discussions conducted by student leaders under the direction of the teacher. The topics for discussion are selected by the homeroom group, with occasional suggestions from the teacher. They cover a wide range of current interests and represent problems of special interest to the group. Among the topics selected for discussion might be study procedures, planning individual schedules for the coming year, college entrance requirements, considerations in selecting a college, vocational choices, boy and girl relations, personal appearance, personal hygiene, radio and motion picture programs, recreation, social etiquette, family relations, speech habits, and consumer buying. Because these topics have a personal interest or because they are recognized as having a place in the life of school community, students profit a good deal from the discussion of them. Unfortunately, in some secondary schools the topics are selected by the faculty and scheduled for the whole school on a certain day. Discussion outlines are supplied and the procedure followed takes on the characteristics of an established routine. As a result, students react indifferently at times and resent being forced into so artificial a situation. Reed makes this comment about the problems selected for group guidance:

Who shall determine what personality topics and personal problems are to be included in group guidance programs? This is a perennial inquiry. Some argue for student selection; others feel that students lack the experience to determine relative values and argue for faculty selection as a better method of assuring topics which time has shown to be desirable. . . . Experience indicates that the opinion of the group to be served does not always coincide with the selection of its overlords but that it is usually a better criterion of immediate need. Moreover a live and fruitful discussion is apt to result from

group-chosen topics, while the I'm-going-to-be-guided attitude handicaps the effectiveness of the most carefully chosen topics of superiors.⁹

The guidance functions of the homeroom are poorly managed in many schools, just as the functions related to extracurricular activities and student participation in school government are handled inefficiently. This condition is brought about because administrators and teachers do not understand the place and importance of the homeroom. They regard it primarily as an administrative unit for handling the routine matters of attendance, announcements, records, and reports. There is no provision made for it in the teaching load and it is frequently assigned to teachers who lack the necessary preparation, although this could be acquired under competent leadership. Moreover, the typical principal offers little stimulation for teachers so far as the possibilities of the homeroom are concerned. Yet, in spite of these limitations, the homeroom remains the most desirable agency within the school for guidance purposes.

The Counselor

The basic guidance organization is complete when provision is made for the services of specialized staff members known as counselors. Devoid of any administrative authority over teachers or pupils, they are used for the intensive study of problems that are too difficult for the average classroom and homeroom teacher to undertake.

Serious cases of maladjustment are usually referred to the counselor after preliminary study by the homeroom teacher or when the homeroom teacher recognizes symptoms of maladjustment that indicate the need for special study. The courteous but quiet withdrawal of a pupil from active participation in the social affairs of the school, for example, may reflect a deep, emotional disturbance which cannot be overcome until the causes are known. Getting at the causes, however, may involve a

⁹ Anna Y. Reed, *Guidance and Personnel Services in Education*, p. 247. Ithaca, New York: Cornell University Press, 1944.

careful analysis of all data supplied by the homeroom teacher about the pupil along with other information secured by the counselor from social agencies, parents, and diagnostic instruments administered for that purpose. It may also involve a long succession of interviews before a satisfactory rapport is established and the pupil is willing to talk freely.

After the diagnostic phases of the counselor's work are complete, he then plans a corrective program for the pupil and sends it to the homeroom teacher from whom the original referral was made. The homeroom teacher may accept the recommendations in whole or in part and take the steps necessary for seeing that they are carried out by the pupil and by other persons who may be influential in facilitating adjustment. In this work, as in other phases of the guidance program, the counselor serves as a resource specialist for all instructional personnel who wish to use his services.

In practice, counselors often assume responsibility for the educational, social, and vocational direction of pupils. They take on administrative responsibilities principally because their duties and relationships to other guidance functionaries are not clearly defined. In consequence, classroom and homeroom teachers pass their problems over to counselors and assume as little responsibility as possible for guidance. Sometimes even routine matters of attendance and discipline are passed on in the same way. To locate disciplinary authority in the counselor is to destroy his psychological value as an adviser and to build a barrier between himself and the pupils. At the same time he becomes overloaded with so many cases that it is impossible to know each pupil intimately or to do more than a perfunctory job in case-study analysis. Counselors who take on such responsibilities are forced to spend a good share of their time filling out forms, making written reports, preparing records, and engaging in other routine procedures that definitely weaken their effectiveness. The only sensible solution for this problem is found in the definition of counseling as a staff service available to teachers for technical advice and the study of special cases received upon referral from the homeroom teacher.

The Visiting Teacher

Like the counselor, the visiting teacher, who is also known as the home and school visitor, is a staff officer devoid of administrative authority over pupils and teachers. Traditionally, the visiting teacher or attendance officer was charged with the enforcement of compulsory school attendance laws. It was his responsibility to see that chronic absentees were either returned to classes or brought into court for punishment. This older concept has given way to a social case-work approach to attendance problems. The causes of absence are studied in relation to the facts about the social background of the pupil. They often reveal a web of circumstances over which the pupil has little or no control, and which cannot be corrected by police measures.

All cases investigated by the visiting teacher are undertaken at the request of the homeroom teacher. A report of the investigation is presented to the homeroom teacher, together with a statement of recommendations. These may involve contacts with community agencies interested in family welfare, clinics, or other established services useful in the improvement of family and individual welfare. They may involve the enforcement of the child labor laws, if outside employment during school hours is a contributing cause of the absence. Even a new schedule of classes to permit release for employment on school time may be recommended as a desirable solution. In other words, the facts about the pupil and his life outside of school are studied in order to plot a constructive course of action.

Other Agents and Agencies

It should be pointed out again that many schools follow a pattern of organization entirely different from the one recommended in the preceding paragraphs. Sometimes the authority to administer the program is given to a guidance director, a dean of students, or direct control is retained by the principal. Occasionally, administration is divided between the vocational co-ordinator, the dean of students, and the class adviser. The vocational

co-ordinator may teach courses dealing with vocational selection, supervise work in business and industry—which is taken by pupils for a half-day—and operate a placement service. The dean of students is responsible in some schools for handling all matters pertaining to the social life of pupils. The educational guidance is placed under the control of the class adviser. Home-room teachers, in this type of arrangement, are concerned mostly with routine matters of administration.

Many other variations are found in the organization for guidance. Unfortunately too much attention is given to the structure and not enough to the actual day-by-day opportunities for guidance in normal learning situations, with the result that classroom teaching remains in the same traditional subject-matter groove, while a superstructure of unrelated and specialized services piles up. To be effective, guidance and learning must be complementary parts of the educative process carried on in every classroom.

OPPORTUNITIES FOR GUIDANCE

Although numerous opportunities for guidance have been pointed out in the preceding sections of this chapter, several specific illustrations will be given suggesting how the teacher can take an active part in the guidance program. With few exceptions, these suggestions apply to both the elementary and the secondary school.

Orientation

The admission of a pupil into a school for the first time calls for his orientation to a new environment. With the help of the teacher, he should become acquainted with the physical layout of the building; the names and locations of administrative officials, teachers, and noninstructional personnel; the programs of studies; the daily schedule; the rules and regulations of the school; the extracurricular offerings; what the school stands for in community life; and his place in the total school program. His induction should result in a belief that he is wanted in the school and that he has a contribution to make to its welfare and progress.

Educational Planning

The advice and the counsel of the teacher are needed in planning each pupil's program of studies. Even at the elementary level, the pupil should understand why the subjects of study are important in relation to future educational and vocational plans. The exploration of new interests should be encouraged and curiosity developed in many different areas of learning. The same process should be continued with greater intensity into the junior high school so that educational and vocational decisions may be reached which shape the choice of electives and the schedule of courses taken in the senior high school. Whether the pupil leaves the senior high school for entrance into college or into employment, his choice should be the product of careful guidance over a long period of time.

Vocational Planning

Vocational planning should start from the time a child enters school. Even though most elementary pupils and many junior high school pupils are too immature to make satisfactory vocational choices, nevertheless the problem of selecting and preparing for future employment should be made a conscious part of their thinking. Teachers can stress it through discussions in the classroom, field trips to various places in the community, outside speakers, motion pictures, and radio programs that deal with man's efforts to earn a living and improve the quality of his culture. Definite units in the social studies should be designed, especially in the junior high school, to gain some understanding of occupational opportunities and to narrow choices down to a few definite occupations around which each pupil makes an intensive investigation. He should understand what the work is like, the remuneration received, opportunities for advancement, preparation needed, and the personal qualifications required for success. This study should influence his selection of a senior high school curriculum.

In the senior high school a real attack should be made upon this problem through special occupational courses, systematized

guidance procedures, speakers, interviews, motion pictures, field trips, selected readings, and other devices having definite vocational values. Work-experience programs should likewise have a place in the curriculum whereby pupils gain practical experience while attending school. Vocational placement services and follow-up of youth in employment are also necessary features and services of any vocational program.

Adjustment

A stimulating challenge is found in meeting problems of pupil adjustment. Teachers invariably encounter boys and girls whose attitudes and actions are unsocial. Some are loud, boastful, selfish, overconfident, rude, intolerant, demanding of attention, excited, afraid, and irresponsible. Usually such behavior manifestations are symbols of adjustment difficulties arising from feelings of inferiority and environmental circumstances in the home and school.

It is a responsibility of the teacher to recognize the symptoms of poor adjustment and to seek the causes behind them. Once the causes are understood, steps may be taken to remedy the difficulties in adjustment. Frequently, however, the teaching load is so heavy that the average classroom teacher cannot give the time and thought required for solving these problems. He can handle many of the less serious ones through individualized and group guidance procedures and refer the others to counselors or other specialized staff personnel for intensive study and treatment.

Self-Guidance

The final goal of all guidance is the intelligent self-direction of the individual within the framework of our social ideals. This is a difficult goal to achieve, yet the patient and persistent effort of the teacher over a period of years will produce gratifying results. Pupils can be taught to analyze and understand their own strengths and weaknesses; to undertake voluntarily a program of self-improvement; to discover the causes for certain opinions, attitudes, and patterns of behavior; to face reality honestly and

courageously; to act upon reason instead of impulse and to control their emotions in a variety of situations; to live harmoniously with other people; to increase their poise and self-confidence; and to look objectively at problems that arise from day to day. Opportunities for promoting growth along these and similar lines are present in every classroom. The teacher who looks upon learning as a guidance process utilizes these opportunities for pupils to develop a sense of responsibility for the intelligent self-direction of their actions.

GUIDANCE TECHNIQUES

To make the most of the guidance opportunities found in the classroom, the teacher should have at his disposal several categories of information about each pupil. He should also know what this information means in terms of behavior and how it can be used with the pupil in helping him to see himself and to solve successfully his own problems. In performing these functions, the teacher may wish to use tests, analyze records, develop questionnaires, carry on interviews, make case studies, and work out co-operative methods of guidance with parents. Each of these techniques can be used by the beginning teacher and supplemented with others as his skill in guidance develops.

Tests

Testing is one of the more important techniques employed by teachers and counselors for gathering information about a pupil and for helping him to work out his adjustment difficulties. Data are gathered by means of tests that shed light upon the pupil's mental capacity, school achievement, vocational interests, special aptitudes, and character and personality traits.

Tests of mental capacity, which are also known as psychological examinations or intelligence tests, yield a general index of mental ability without indicating the direction in which it can be applied. Their value lies principally in predicting educational and occupational failure, more than in predicting success. Experience has shown that those who receive low scores cannot succeed beyond certain levels, whereas a high test score does not

assure success simply because too many other factors are involved. Moreover, an intelligence test score, at best, is nothing more than a measure of general ability—not one of specific aptitude in particular educational and vocational fields.

Two different kinds of intelligence tests are used in counseling and guidance work. One is an individual test which should be administered by a person who is trained and experienced. Special skills are involved in giving this test and in interpreting its results for diagnostic and prognostic purposes. The other is a group intelligence test which is given to several pupils at the same time. Although some skill is involved in its administration, the teacher can acquire it quickly. The results of this type of test have value for educational and occupational guidance when used in relation to other known facts about the individual. There is a danger, however, of placing too high a reliance upon the group test because it is apt to rate inferior pupils too low, or to penalize those who are very slow, emotionally disturbed, or those who fail to follow directions accurately. In general, these tests should be considered merely as tools, not as ends, in counseling pupils.

There is a positive relationship between intelligence test scores and scores on standardized achievement tests. The scores in one field may be used to check those in the other. If the pupil's achievement correlates satisfactorily with his mental ability, he is said to be working up to or near to his capacity. On the other hand, a poor relationship between the scores may be a symptom of something in the pupil's mental life or environmental surroundings that needs attention. Achievement test scores likewise indicate special areas of weakness requiring remedial instruction, or they may be used as a basis for ability grouping and the adaptation of special methods and materials to certain pupils.

In addition to standardized achievement tests, teachers can use or make use of test scores derived from aptitude tests. These are tests which have for their primary purpose "the measurement of one's potential ability prior to opportunity for special training. . . . The types of special abilities or aptitude, measured

to a greater or less degree by aptitude tests, are usually classified as (1) manual, (2) mechanical, (3) clerical, and (4) professional."¹⁰ With the exception of those pertaining to professional fields, the others are relatively inexpensive and practical in their value for occupational guidance and counseling. The *Revised Minnesota Paper Form Board Test*, for example, can be administered in 20 minutes and it is easy to score. It produces evidence of ability to learn mechanical drawing and descriptive geometry and is also predictive with regard to success in mechanical work and in engineering courses. Such test results are highly useful in checking occupational choices made by pupils and aiding others to find suitable fields of employment. It should be borne in mind that too heavy a reliance cannot be placed upon the predictive value of aptitude tests alone. They must be used along with other data about pupil performance in certain classes, work experience, grades received in various subjects, and so on.

Since aptitude is closely related to interest, and interest is held to be a major factor in success, attention has been directed toward the measurement of an individual's interests. Some standardized tests or inventories of interests have been worked out, notably the *Kuder Preference Record* and the *Strong Vocational Interest Blanks for Men and Women*. There are no right or wrong answers in these tests. Instead, the person being examined is asked to tell whether he likes, dislikes, or is indifferent to each item listed. His reactions are compared with those given by people who are successfully engaged in a number of different occupations covered by the test. The use of interest tests for guidance purposes is subject to caution. Research has shown that interests change a good deal during childhood and adolescence; their permanence increases with age, knowledge, and experience.

Similarly, character and personality traits enter into an appraisal of the individual's chances for adjusting satisfactorily to work, recreation, family life, school activities, and many other

¹⁰ Anna G. Reed, *op. cit.*, p. 173.

phases of living. Certainly the character and personality requirements for success in salesmanship are different from those required of a clergyman. Since measuring instruments of character and personality traits have not been developed in any manner comparable to intelligence and achievement tests, reliance has been placed, for the most part, upon rating scales. Used by pupils as a means for self-rating as well as by teachers for rating pupils, they have a high value for interview and discussion purposes. A skillful teacher can help the pupil to realize how essential certain traits are to various types of success, and the responsibility the pupil faces in bringing his own traits in line with social and occupational requirements.

A technique of merit used along with rating scales is the anecdotal or behavior record of the pupil. This record is used for describing significant instances or expressions of a pupil's behavior, including conversational remarks, attitudes displayed, various forms of action, questions asked, and any other type of behavior observed. The records should contain positive and negative descriptions of behavior which are typical of the pupil. A collection of these records makes it possible for the teacher to see patterns of behavior developing, certain strengths and weaknesses, and sometimes the means needed for effecting an adjustment. In combination with ratings of character and personality traits, a substantial body of information can thus be acquired for guidance purposes.

Records

The previous discussion of tests used in guidance suggests the place and importance of records as means for diagnosing the needs of pupils. Diagnosis begins with a collection of information related in any way to a problem under consideration. It includes data descriptive of home and family life, previous school history, scholarship standing, participation in extracurricular activities, scores on various standardized tests, outside work experience, special interests and aptitudes, health history and status, honors received, outstanding experiences, significant behaviors

observed, neighborhood surroundings, and uses of leisure time. Most of this information should be on records that are readily available to teachers and counselors.

It has become a practice in better schools to bring all of this information together in a single folder or packet known as a cumulative record. Starting when the child first enters school, this record follows him from one grade to the next. New information is added each year increasing continuously its value for guidance purposes. In some schools various aspects of the total record are maintained separately. The health history may be kept in the medical office; attendance, scholarship, and test records in the central office; behavior records in the homeroom; and still other records in the offices of the counselor and dean of students. Where this system is followed, the time required for obtaining a complete record of the pupil discourages many teachers from making a systematic and thorough approach to guidance problems.

The beginning teacher will find it advisable to become acquainted fully with the cumulative record and to determine how this record may be used in working with pupils. He will discover that it is a comprehensive source of data for gaining an understanding of pupil needs, interests, and abilities. It will provide a factual basis for dealing constructively with adjustment difficulties and for planning educational and vocational programs. Used in conferences with pupils and parents, it objectifies issues and centers attention on facts instead of opinions. The information found there likewise suggests causes of failures, helps to single out pupils having highly specialized abilities, and points the direction that certain forms of growth are taking. It will soon become apparent to the beginning teacher who studies the cumulative record that it is a highly important means for diagnosing pupil problems.

Adjustment Questionnaires

Adjustment questionnaires are another technique for securing information about pupils. Where a test seeks to measure a given amount of something or an ability to perform, the adjustment

questionnaire tries to reveal how an individual reacts in certain situations. His reactions are recorded in the form of *yes* or *no* answers. An analysis of these answers provides definite leads to his emotional nature, his attitudes, and the kinds of choices he is apt to make. The questionnaires employed most commonly deal with adjustment reactions in the areas of emotions, social relations, health, family life, and work and study practices.

Although a number of published adjustment questionnaires are available, such as the *Bernreuter Personality Inventory*, the *Bell Adjustment Inventory*, the *Allport A-S Reaction Study*, and the *Humm-Wadsworth Temperament Scale*, teachers and counselors have found it advantageous to develop their own. They can get at adjustment reactions peculiar to certain individuals and groups more satisfactorily by building a questionnaire fitted to their own needs and purposes. Germane and Germane report good success in the use of these instruments when they are developed by pupils and teachers working together.¹¹

A note of caution, however, is in order for the inexperienced teacher who wishes to make use of the adjustment questionnaire. The informational reactions called for are frequently intimate and personal in character. Many pupils are unwilling to reveal themselves and often feel that if they do their reactions may not be held in strict confidence. As a result they answer the questions dishonestly and weaken the value of information given. A teacher who plans to administer such a questionnaire must take time in advance to prepare the pupils and to gain the confidence needed for securing accurate information. Above all, the teacher must hold the answers in trust; any failure to do this simply destroys further attempts to use this technique for guidance purposes.

Interviews

Another tool available to the teacher and counselor for making an individualized approach to guidance problems is the interview. Used in a face-to-face situation involving the teacher

¹¹ Charles E. Germane and Edith G. Germane, *Personnel Work in High School*, pp. 161-162. New York: Silver Burdett Company, 1941.

and pupil, the interview is an excellent means for building mutual interests and developing sympathetic understandings. It enables the teacher to obtain valuable information from the pupil and to impart suggestions helpful to the pupil in seeing his own problems and planning their solutions. Among guidance specialists, it is regarded as one of the best techniques used in pupil personnel work.

Teachers unskilled in the art of conducting an interview learn from study and experience that interviews must be planned and certain procedures followed before success is attained. An attempt is usually made to bring about friendly relations with the pupil well in advance of any scheduled meeting. His case history is reviewed and the gaps noted which need to be filled in during the interview. The purpose of interviewing the pupil is defined and approaches are selected for putting the pupil at ease. He must be encouraged to talk freely, knowing that what he says will be respected and held in confidence. When the interview has been concluded, the teacher evaluates the extent to which the purpose was accomplished and decides upon the action that is required to follow it up.

Case Study

When more detailed information is required for the diagnosis and remedial treatment of difficult problems, the case study or case work method is used by the teacher or counselor. This method starts with the complete collection of all data related in any way to the behavior of the pupil. Facts are gathered about family background, neighborhood conditions, sex development, social maturity, religious training, vocational interests, and the like. Some of this material is supplied by the pupil during interviews, some is obtained from school records, special testing instruments are administered, the home may be visited, and the records of community agencies are consulted where such agencies are acquainted with the family or the pupil.

After all available information about the pupil has been brought together, it is classified and organized by the teacher as

a means of getting down to the causes for the behavior difficulty. Once the causative factors are understood, steps can then be taken to initiate a plan for eliminating or modifying the maladjustment. However, if the causative factors are not evident after an analysis of the personal data, it may be necessary to set up a reasonable working hypothesis upon which the plan of treatment is based. This hypothesis should be regarded as tentative and subject to change in the light of new and additional information about the pupil.

No plan of treatment can be based strictly upon the facts themselves; the personality and reactions of the pupil must be taken into consideration. The teacher will want to know whether the pupil understands the problems; whether he sees cause-and-effect relationships; what his attitude toward treatment may be; whether he will co-operate; and how dependable he is in undertaking responsibilities connected with the treatment.

In any treatment of a behavior difficulty, the process is one involving the pupil and the teacher. Plans are made and executed jointly. Occasionally causes underlying behavior are so complex that the assistance of a physician or a psychiatrist is needed. At other times the co-operation of an outside agency has its place.

Parental Co-operation

A number of guidance problems can be solved more successfully when parents are invited to take part in them. With some exceptions, they appreciate the opportunity of meeting with the teacher for an impartial discussion of the issues raised by the facts about their son or daughter. Such a discussion emphasizes the mutual role of each in improving the welfare of the pupil. It brings out the things that a parent ought to know about the school and that the teacher ought to know about the home. Together plans can be drawn for undertaking a two-way attack upon behavior and adjustment difficulties. Often better results are produced in this way than if the teacher works alone with

the pupil. Moreover, parents gain a definite appreciation of the guidance program and a stronger interest in the school when the teacher shows a sincere concern for the welfare and happiness of the youngster.

RELATED READINGS

Baxter, Edna Dorothy, *An Approach to Guidance*. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., 1946.

This book was written for teachers in service and for students preparing to teach. It is divided into two parts. The first is a story about teachers. The second part interprets the story and states the principles and methods of guidance which are found in the story. A different treatment of the subject presented in a readable and interesting style.

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Guidance is regarded in this book as an educative process in which the teacher and pupil have a mutual interest. The importance of the pupil is emphasized, while the organizational and administrative features of the program are regarded merely as tools in achieving the purposes of guidance.

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Ruch, Giles M. and Segel, David, *Minimum Essentials of the Individual Inventory in Guidance*, U. S. Office of Education, Vocational Division Bulletin No. 202. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1940.

The authors hold that the analysis of the individual is basic to

his adjustment. They outline how an individual analysis may be made and the items to be considered in making it.

Strang, Ruth, *Pupil Personnel and Guidance*. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1940.

An excellent treatment of guidance. Contains many suggestions helpful for teachers.

Traxler, Arthur E., *Techniques of Guidance*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1945.

One of the better books on guidance practices.

Chapter 14

PROMOTING PUPIL PROGRESS

A NUMBER OF the guidance problems handled by classroom teachers and counselors concern the rate of progress pupils make in school. Where lack of normal progress is evident, attempts are made to find the causes and to change the conditions responsible for it. In some instances, normal progress can be restored through constructive counseling and guidance, but in others the basic factors are related to the policies and practices of the school itself. Until the influence of such policies and practices are understood, and modifications in them are made, the progress of many pupils is impaired.

COMPULSORY ATTENDANCE

A distinction should be made between the idea of compulsory educational opportunities for all children and the legal requirement that they attend school. The principle of universal education was adopted in the middle of the last century, but the concept of compulsory attendance did not become a part of the statute law in all states until 1912—a lag of approximately 70 years from the passage of the first compulsory school attendance law.

To some, a question may still occur as to the right of the state to compel children to attend school. Compulsory attendance, however, finds its justification in the belief that a literate people is requisite to the effective operation of government in a democracy. The minimum education of every individual is a safeguard for the state. Whether or not a child remains in ignorance concerns not only himself and his immediate family but the entire group of which he is a member. In view of this fact,

the state insists that he receive a basic exposure to the school program, and that the financial burden of operating the program be borne by all who receive its benefits, either directly or indirectly. Self-preservation rather than paternalism is the principal motive of the state.

A large share of the responsibility for carrying out the will of the state regarding compulsory school attendance falls upon the teacher. For this reason, he should understand the compulsory school laws and the problems involved in their enforcement.

Compulsory Attendance Legislation

The attendance laws of the several states differ somewhat in their details, but in general they give consideration to such items as the following: (1) amount of attendance required, stated in terms of minimum and maximum age limits or total number of years of attendance; (2) minimum length of school term; (3) minimum amount of education necessary for exemption; (4) exemption for various reasons, including labor permits, distance from school, poverty, physical disability, and church observances; (5) provisions for compulsory, part-time, or evening school attendance; (6) educational aid to indigent children; (7) methods of enforcement, including provisions for the taking of the school census, definition of truancy, and the duties of principals and teachers in keeping records and making reports; and (8) provisions for attendance officers and statements of their powers and duties.

According to an investigation by the United States Office of Education reported in 1945, the average minimum age for compulsory attendance in the United States is 7.18 years and the average maximum, 16.10 years.¹ The ages most common for compulsory attendance are 7-16 in 24 states. All except four of the states have regulations covering both school attendance and employment. Exemptions from compulsory attendance, aside from the need for employment, are physical and mental

¹ Maris M. Proffitt and David Segel, *School Census, Compulsory Education, Child Labor*, pp. 10-15. United States Office of Education, Bulletin 1945, No. 1. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1945.

disability, distance from school, and attendance at private school or private instruction.

Compulsory Attendance Enforcement

It should be quite apparent that attendance legislation, no matter how sound in principle, is no guarantee that satisfactory conditions of pupil attendance in school will prevail. For the vast majority of American parents no compulsion is needed to get them to send their children to school. They are convinced of the value of education and of the necessity for regular attendance. Unless prevented by poverty or other circumstances, they will voluntarily see to it that children continue in regular attendance up to or beyond the maximum age limit. On the other hand, there are those in the minority who because of ignorance, perversity, or selfishness refuse either to enroll their children in school or to keep them in regular attendance after enrollment. These parents, with certain important social and economic conditions, furnish the majority of the problems confronting those responsible for the enforcement of attendance.

It is manifestly impossible for a community or a state to enforce attendance at school with any large degree of success unless schools are made available to pupils. This means that sufficient school buildings properly located, good roads, and transportation are prerequisites to attendance enforcement. Here at the start the poor state or community is placed at a distinct disadvantage, for each of these factors demands large contributions from public funds. Moreover, parents cannot be expected to keep their children in school when they are unable to purchase for them the necessary books and clothing. In such situations the enforcement of attendance laws involves a reciprocal obligation on the part of the state in the form of providing these necessities for indigent children. Likewise, the state must make provisions for those who, because of physical or mental disability, are unable to attend the regular school, before it can be said to have squarely faced the problem of universal education. Child labor legislation and its enforcement are closely associated with school attendance and, like the previously men-

tioned economic and social problems, must be properly cared for if the administration of attendance laws is to be successful.²

The first essentials in the enforcement of compulsory attendance are adequate provisions for caring for related social and economic problems, and a sound attendance law written in terms of the conditions in the state that it is to serve. When these two elements have been provided, the problem becomes one of setting up machinery and procedures that will insure that every child fit to attend school will be on the roll of some school and that each enrolled child will be kept in reasonably regular attendance. The organization should involve a visiting teacher, full time or part time, for each local school district and as many assistants as the size of the system may warrant.

The Attendance Officer

It is not in line with the purposes of this discussion to consider in detail the administrative machinery for the enforcement of school attendance. However, one tendency should be called to the attention of the prospective teacher. A few years ago attendance officials were almost universally known as "truant officers," and, as the title implies, their primary function was conceived to be that of forcing regular attendance at school on the belief that the failure of a child to attend school regularly, when a school and other necessities were made available to him, was always due to perversity and willful disobedience of the law on the part of the child, his parents, or both. Little consideration was given to the fact that ignorance of the law or of its intent might be the cause of the irregular attendance or *truancy*, as it was customarily called, nor was allowance made for the fact that if the school is to force attendance it has the obligation of making its program of interest and of value to the child it compels.

Today an entirely different attitude is being taken in our

²For a detailed account of child labor and attendance in one state, consult the following article: Mildred Fairchild and Leslie W. Kindred, "Child Labor in Pennsylvania," *The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, 30:39-54. March, 1946.

more progressive states and communities. Although the authority to use the law to compel attendance is still given attendance officers—and such authority will always be necessary in some cases—the job of attendance enforcement is looked upon primarily as a task of acquainting the school with the home conditions of the child, informing the home about the school, and assisting in the adjustment of the school to the child to the degree that compulsion will not be necessary to secure attendance. Further, the task of the attendance officer or visiting teacher is becoming one of a social and psychological nature rather than one of a legal character. His business is to learn the causes of irregular attendance and truancy and to eliminate them, rather than to force the attendance of the child by legal procedures.

The proper performance of this type of work requires the services of a trained individual and one gifted with a large amount of judgment and common sense. The day of the untrained, underpaid, and ineffective truant officer is rapidly passing, and it is probably safe to predict that the future will see the establishment of regulations in all states respecting the preparation of attendance officials with a view to the professionalization of this work.

The School Census

Within a particular school system attendance enforcement may be considered to present two rather distinct problems: first, getting all children enrolled, and second, keeping all enrolled children in reasonably regular attendance. For the accomplishment of the first task there is maintained a school census or enumeration. If such a record is to function efficiently, or even with reasonable accuracy, it must at any time include the names of all children of compulsory school age who should be on the rolls of the school system, and at the same time be free of all names that cannot be so classified. Inasmuch as the school population is never static, such a record must always be undergoing change. Children are constantly being moved from one school district to another or from one school area to another within the same system; others are reaching ages beyond the

maximum for compulsory attendance; others are arriving at school age; some are leaving the public schools and entering private institutions or vice versa; some are becoming physically or mentally unfit to attend school; and still others are dying. All of these changing conditions must be accurately recorded by the school census if it is to be an effective instrument for the enforcement of attendance.

In the majority of school systems such is not the case. In the past the census has been required by most states primarily as a basis for the distribution of school funds and only secondarily as a means for the enforcement of attendance. As a consequence, it has been taken only periodically and then in many cases in an extremely careless and inaccurate fashion. Thus taken, it has served very inadequately as a basis for the enforcement of compulsory attendance laws.

Recently there has been developed in many of our leading city school systems a device commonly described as a continuing school census. As the term implies, the continuing census is a record of the school population that will furnish at any time an accurate basis for the enforcement of the compulsory attendance laws. Under such a plan the census card adopted will be filled out for every child in the school district below the last age at which it seems desirable for the school to maintain its contact with the pupil. Authorities usually recommend that the record involve all ages below 18 years and as many years in advance of this age as the law may require.

The maintenance of an accurate school census as a basis for the enforcement of compulsory attendance presents some extremely difficult problems but none that cannot be solved if the combined efforts of the administrative staff, the attendance officer, and an intelligent teaching corps are brought to bear on them. That this is the case is evidenced by the fact that the continuing census is usually found operating in the city where the difficulties are greatest but where the administrative and teaching personnel is strongest.

Maintaining Regular Attendance

With an accurate continuing census available and in use, each principal and each teacher knows exactly what pupils are supposed to be enrolled in his school or classes at any particular time, and the problem becomes one of keeping all enrolled children in attendance. For this task the principal, attendance officer, and teacher must be jointly responsible.

How regularly may any individual pupil or any group of pupils be expected to attend school? This is a question that merits the serious consideration of every teacher. Obviously, perfect attendance cannot be expected, for illness and other causes of absence usually recognized as legitimate are almost certain to make such a record impossible for any large number of pupils. The goal is the attendance of each pupil on every day that both he and the class or school will be benefited more by his presence than by his absence.

Irregular attendance always represents a loss to the pupil, and when excessive may be a direct cause of failure. Moreover, it can be the cause of considerable waste in the operation of the school since the entire organization, including the administration, the teaching staff, supplies, buildings, and equipment is set up and operated in terms of the enrollment rather than the number actually in attendance at any particular time. Even though the loss of general efficiency due to this cause cannot be considered proportional to the actual amount of nonattendance, it is, nevertheless, of some importance, because the cost of operating the school remains approximately constant regardless of the number of absent pupils. It is highly important both for the school and the pupil himself that he be kept attending regularly, but there is a limit beyond which it is unquestionably unnecessary and even undesirable to go. To persuade a child to attend school when his presence may seriously endanger his own health and that of dozens of others is to carry a generally desirable procedure to an undesirable extreme. Such a practice is not at all uncommon in many elementary schools where great stress is

placed on regular attendance by means of awards, class rivalries, and other artificial motives. Furthermore, teachers are inclined frequently to overemphasize the contribution made to the education of a child by a single class meeting or a single school day. Reasonably regular school attendance is highly desirable and perhaps essential to the efficient conduct of the educational program, but good judgment is needed in determining when a reasonable per cent of attendance has been achieved. Almost every case of nonattendance must be judged on its own merits, and it is because of this fact that the classroom teacher can make a substantial contribution to the problem.

What are the specific responsibilities of the classroom teacher in the solution of school attendance problems and by what general principles may he direct his activities? In the light of the preceding discussion it is clearly his business to make a check on every absence with a view to judging whether or not it is justifiable. Moreover, it is not enough to determine merely that an absence is or is not justifiable. In the latter case the cause must be learned in order that its recurrence may be prevented. Children must be led to see that it is desirable to attend school with a high degree of regularity and that it is for legitimate reasons only that absences may be condoned. Nothing promotes such a wholesome attitude toward the problem as the assurance on the part of the pupil that the teacher is at all times keeping an accurate check on attendance, and that he will use fairness and common sense in judging the merits of each case. Whether the teacher is working in an elementary school where he alone is responsible for a group of pupils or in a high school where the responsibility may be shared with other teachers, the problem remains much the same. In any case, administrative officials and attendance officers will find it impossible to achieve the desired results without his intelligent co-operation.

The principles governing the teacher's participation in the enforcement of attendance may be summarized as follows:

1. The teacher should understand the nature and purpose of the continuing census as a basis for the enforcement of attend-

ance. He should be able to evaluate the census procedures employed and to lend assistance in their improvement.

2. The teacher should be certain that he has available a list of all pupils for whose attendance he should be responsible. Such lists are made up from the census. In the elementary school the teacher will usually be responsible for all children in the school district or attendance area who may belong to the grade he is teaching, and in the high school the group will consist of those in a homeroom assignment or those enrolled in his classes.

3. It should be borne in mind that the most important means of obtaining regular attendance is to make the school program so interesting and so important to the child that he will have no desire to be absent except for reasons customarily regarded as legitimate. There are many schools in America today where regularity of attendance is easily attained because nearly all pupils would rather be participating in the school activities than doing anything else. This does not mean that the school is to be operated for the mere entertainment of pupils. The program can be interesting and compelling without loss of educational value.

4. It must likewise be kept in mind that the enforcement of attendance at school carries with it an obligation to provide something of value and interest to every individual. This must mean effective differentiation of instruction. As long as the course of study and teaching procedures are dictated wholly by the needs of the mythical average child, there will be some to whom the offering will possess little attraction. Irregular attendance is a natural consequence in such cases.

5. Judgment must be used in determining when an absence is legitimate. As previously implied, the criterion must be the attendance of each child on every day that both he and the class or school will be benefited more by his presence than by his absence.

6. Artificial means of improving attendance, such as awards and contests, are unquestionably of value, particularly in the

elementary school, but their use should be reduced to a minimum by the more fundamental procedures of discovering and eliminating the causes of absence.

7. Where expert attendance service is not available, the teacher should accept some responsibility for contacting the home with a view to improved co-operation on the problem of attendance.

8. It is important that every absence be explained, but an excuse system that encourages dishonesty on the part of pupils and insincere relationships between the parent and the school may be educationally more objectionable than a limited amount of unnecessary absence.

9. Tardiness and absence should not be allowed to affect pupils' marks except as they may do so indirectly. There is something seriously wrong with a school that is compelled to make deductions from marks in order to secure desirable regularity in attendance.

10. Promptness should be insisted upon but the campaign against tardiness should not be made a fetish. Promptness and a businesslike attitude on the part of the teacher are among the surest means of producing like behavior on the part of pupils.

11. Accurate records and reports are essential to effective attendance service, and no single force will impel the pupil to regular attendance more quickly than the knowledge that such records and reports are always accurately made.

12. The teacher should assume the responsibility for keeping all records and making all reports requested by the administration or the attendance department. If such work is to be accurately and promptly cared for, the teacher must study carefully the forms employed and the instructions respecting their use.

13. When all reasonable devices fail, the teacher should seek the aid of the administration and the attendance department. Under such conditions he should be in a position to recommend whether or not legal enforcement of the attendance law seems necessary.

14. It should be kept in mind that promptness and regularity

are in themselves of great educational value. Habits of this kind correctly formed during the early school years will make the enforcement of school attendance increasingly easier in the later years and will likewise carry over into adult life as a part of the educational heritage of the individual.

PROMOTION AND FAILURE

Ideally, a child's educational progress should represent a constant and uninterrupted development at a rate commensurate with his capacities to learn. Grades, marks, failures, and promotions would have no place in an ideal arrangement. Instead, the learner, through an intimate, sympathetic, and co-operative relationship with the teacher, would make continuous progress by undergoing a broad but unified series of educational experiences without time or subject-matter restrictions. This ideal has never been achieved in America, nor has it been closely approximated except, perhaps, in a few of our more modern schools where superior teachers have developed the curriculum around the needs and interests of the pupils.

The Problem of Pupil Progress

The ungraded school of the colonial and early national period, in some respects, represented a better realization of an ideal school than does our present organization. Each pupil was taught as an individual; the distribution of time—both of the teacher and among subject divisions—was governed by the needs of the pupils; and it was possible for progress to be steady and uninterrupted since there were no artificial barriers in the form of marks, grades, and failures. Unfortunately, in many ways, this system gave way to the graded school mainly as a result of the rapid increase in school enrollments.

This rapid increase in enrollments made it almost impossible for the teacher to permit each pupil to start the beginning of the school term at the point at which he had stopped at the close of the preceding year, and to progress at his own rate as had previously been the custom. The pressure of numbers forced the employment of more teachers, higher costs, and the need of

having each teacher take care of more pupils. In answer to this problem, the classification of pupils into groups or grades was adopted and group progress at stated intervals was substituted for continuous individual progress. Whenever pupils are grouped together for purposes of instruction, and whenever progress is measured in terms of separate time units, standards are used as a means for determining when a child may leave one of these units and become identified with the succeeding one. And, with the appearance of standards, failure and the non-promotion of pupils follow as long as the upper ranges of our system are regarded as selective and the successful completion of one division secures unqualified admission to the next.

The Effects of Standards

The rigid adherence to standards of accomplishment, principally in the acquisition of subject-matter content, has been characteristic of the policy followed by public schools until relatively recent times. The standards adopted vary somewhat with particular situations, the background of the teacher, the measuring instruments used, and the administrative viewpoint prevailing. But, in general, the criterion of success has been the assimilation of factual knowledge. If a pupil did not absorb and give back the quantity of information required, he was considered a failure and retained in the same grade or subject for another term.

The rigid adherence to standards of subject-matter achievement in the classroom is clearly evident when any given group of pupils is studied. Assume for the moment that a given group are exactly together in the achievement of some particular phase of the school program. Although they are all at the same stage of accomplishment in this one particular, they are by no means alike in other respects. They differ in chronological age, physical development, readiness for learning, social maturity, intellectual ability, interests, attitudes toward learning, and in numerous other respects. Consequently the school term will be scarcely under way before differences in the amount and character of growth and achievement will begin to make their appear-

ance and continue to spread until the close of the year. Yet, in the determination of success or failure, a single standard of achievement may be used with little or no consideration being given to this vast range of individual differences; the children either measure up to or do not measure up to the standard of achievement fixed by the teacher.

The ills attendant upon this system of education are numerous. They include the educational waste resulting from failures of pupils; the undesirable attitude of mind generated in the pupil by failure, particularly when nonpromotion occurs more than once; overemphasis on artificial standards and the consequent neglect of fundamental educational purposes; the sacrifice of the slow and the bright for the average; high elimination from school upon the attainment of the legal-age limit for leaving; psychological and physiological disturbances; and the general neglect of differences among pupils in interests, tastes, and abilities. Although a mere enumeration of these ills does not cover the entire problem, the beginning teacher who is sensitive to the issue of promotion and failure and its effect upon pupils can do a great deal to change policy and correct practices in the school system where he is employed.

Studies of Pupil Progress

During the early years of the present century attention was directed to the problem of failure and retardation in the school. Age-grade and grade-progress studies brought to light the seriousness of the situation. The age-grade study, an example of which is shown in Figure 33, gives a composite picture for a division of a school, or an entire school, of the relationship between the ages of pupils and the grades which they have attained. Age is taken as a measure of the degree to which normal progress in school has been made, if normal progress is interpreted as meaning the completion of a school grade each school year.

In order to prepare an age-grade table, two types of information are necessary: the grade in which each pupil is enrolled and his age in years and months. With this information in hand, the teacher charts the position of each child on the table or scat-

ter diagram. Those who are of normal age will fall within the diagonal lines; those who are under-age will fall above, and those who are over-age, below. As the units of measurement are periods of six months, the amount of under-ageness or over-ageness can in any case be determined. Conditions in terms of numbers and per cents of under-age, normal-age, and over-age are summarized at the bottom of the chart.

The position is sometimes taken that the age-grade table does

Normal Age Limits in Years and Months	1st Grade			2nd Grade			3rd Grade			4th Grade			5th Grade			6th Grade			7th Grade			8th Grade			Totals		
	B	G	T	B	G	T	B	G	T	B	G	T	B	G	T	B	G	T	B	G	T	B	G	T	B	G	T
5-10 to 6-3	7	11	18																						7	11	18
6-4 to 6-9	6	15	21	1																					7	15	22
6-10 to 7-3	6	7	13	8	4	12																			14	11	25
7-4 to 7-9	3	4	7	5	6	11																			9	10	19
7-10 to 8-3	3	5	8	7	3	10	1			1	1														17	14	31
8-4 to 8-9	4	3	7	4	4	8	1	7	8		2	2		1	1										9	17	26
8-10 to 9-3	4	1	5	4	2	6	2	4	6	6	4	10													16	11	27
9-4 to 9-9	1	1	2	2	1	3	2	5	7	4	3	7													9	10	19
9-10 to 10-3				1	1	2	1	3	4	8	9	17	3	3	6										13	16	29
10-4 to 10-9							3	1	4	2	4	6	2	5	7	2		2							9	10	19
10-10 to 11-3							2	1	3	3	1	4	3	4	7				1	1					8	7	15
11-4 to 11-9							1	1	2	5	1	6	3	3	6	1	1	2	2	2					12	6	18
11-10 to 12-3							1		1	1	1	2	4	5	9	1	1	2	1	3	4	1	2	1	9	10	19
12-4 to 12-9													2	4	6	5		5	1	1		1	1	2	9	6	15
12-10 to 13-3				1		1							3	2	5				2	2	4	3		3	9	4	13
13-4 to 13-9										1		1	1	1	2	3	1	4	2	2	4	2	2	2	7	6	13
13-10 to 14-3				1		1							1	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	4	1	1	4	5	9	
14-4 to 14-9													1	1	3	3	1	4	2	3	5	8	5	13	5	13	
14-10 to 15-3																			1	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	
15-4 to 15-9													2	1	3				1			1	1	1	2	7	
15-10 to 16-3																		1						1	1	2	
16-4 to 16-9																		1	1								
16-10 to 17-3																						1	1		1	1	
17-4 to 17-9																											
Totals	34	47	81	34	21	55	21	27	48	30	26	56	23	31	54	16	4	20	15	11	26	10	12	22	183	179	362
Number:																											
Under-Age	19	33	52	20	13	32	10	16	26	18	16	34	8	12	20	2	2	2	2	1	3	2	2	4	8	7	15
Normal-Age	15	14	29	13	8	21	10	11	21	12	7	19	15	18	33	12	2	4	4	5	9	3	3	6	84	100	184
Over-Age																											
Per Cent:																											
Under-Age	56	70	64	59	62	60	47	59	54	60	62	61	35	39	37	13	50	20	27	45	35	30	25	27	46	56	61
Normal-Age	44	30	36	38	38	38	48	41	44	40	27	34	65	58	61	75	50	70	60	45	54	60	58	55	50	40	45
Over-Age																											

FIGURE 33. Age-Grade Distribution of the Pupils of a Rural Elementary School.

not present an entirely accurate picture of pupil progress since early or late entrance into school or absence for an entire term or year could make a child under-age or over-age even though his progress had been regular in every respect. To get an accurate concept of progress pupils are making, the age-grade table is supplemented by a second measure known as a grade-progress table. This device, which the teacher will find useful, provides for the charting of the factors of grade and number of years in school. A copy of a grade-progress distribution is presented in Figure 34.

Whichever device is used by the teacher for studying conditions in a particular school depends upon what factor is regarded as most important in determining the grade status of a child. If the number of years in school is deemed best, a grade-progress table should be used; if chronological age is held to be more important, then an age-grade table should be used. If, however, mental ability is regarded as primary, a mental age-grade table can be constructed in the same way as the age-grade and grade-progress tables. Similar use can be made of data pertaining to

Number of Years in School	1st Grade			2nd Grade			3rd Grade			4th Grade			5th Grade			6th Grade			7th Grade			8th Grade			Totals		
	B	G	T	B	G	T	B	G	T	B	G	T	B	G	T	B	G	T	B	G	T	B	G	T	B	G	T
Less than one year	34	40	74																						34	40	74
One year	17	15	32	19	22	41		1	1																36	38	74
Two years	3	1	4	13	11	24	15	19	34				1	1	2										32	32	64
Three years				4	3	7	13	15	28	17	25	42													34	43	77
Four years	1			1	1	2	3	7	5	12	11	9	20	13	15	28									33	31	64
Five years		1	1	2	2	4				5	2	7	9	8	17	9	11	20							25	24	49
Six years				1			1	2	3	4	3	7	9	9	18	10	10	20							25	24	49
Seven years							1	1	1	1	1	2	4	3	7	7	6	13							13	10	23
Eight years							1		2		2	1	3	4	2	2	4								6	8	11
Nine years								1		1					1		1								2		2
Ten years												1				1	1								1		1
Totals	55	57	112	40	40	80	38	42	80	41	40	81	37	39	76	29	30	59							240	248	488
Number:																											
Accelerated								1	1				1	1	2										1	2	3
Normal Progress	34	40	74	19	22	41	15	19	34	17	25	42	13	15	28	9	11	20							107	132	239
Retarded	21	17	38	21	18	39	23	22	45	24	15	39	23	23	46	20	19	39							132	114	246
Per Cent:																											
Accelerated								2	1				3	3	3										4	8	6
Normal Progress	62	70	66	48	55	51	39	46	43	41	63	52	35	38	37	31	37	34							44.6	53.2	49.0
Retarded	38	30	34	52	45	49	61	52	56	59	37	48	62	59	60	69	63	66							55.6	46.0	50.4

FIGURE 34. Grade-Progress Distribution of the Pupils in the First Six Grades of a Small City School System.

achievement as revealed by standardized tests. In any case, the purpose of the teacher is that of determining the progress being made by the pupils of the grade or subject in terms of some factor thought to be important.

Elimination from School

Along with studies of progress rate made by pupils under our traditional program of education, attention has been given, and should continue to be given, to the percentage and causes of pupil elimination from school. A glance at Figure 34 will show something of the conditions revealed by studies of elimination. Under ideal school conditions, each child would progress through the 12-year school without failure or interruption so that there

would be at any time about $8\frac{1}{3}$ per cent of the total enrollment in each of the 12 grades. The difference between this condition and actual conditions is indicated in the table referred to above.

Among the causes for elimination from school, retardation and nonpromotion have been prominent. The proportion of over-age pupils rises rapidly, because of failure and grade repetition, from the first grade to the point at which the compulsory attendance laws cease to operate. As a result of variations in compulsory attendance laws among the states, dropouts occur most heavily in grades eight, nine, and ten. The percentage of elimination thereafter is reduced consistently each year throughout the secondary school, since the majority of retarded and over-age pupils have already given up further attempts at formal education.

There is a growing conviction among school people that nonpromotion rates are unreasonable, not necessarily because standards of accomplishment are too high—although this is true in many cases—but primarily as a result of the artificial nature of the standards employed, the neglect of the slow child for the average, poor teaching, and above all the general failure of the school to adjust its program to the needs of pupils. The goal then must be a more functional curriculum, the elimination of failure, better teaching, approximate uniformity in school enrollments throughout the 12 years of the elementary and secondary system, and a greater concern for the total growth and development of the pupil.

STEPS IN PROMOTING PUPIL PROGRESS

Most new teachers who are entering the field of education will recognize many of the factors described previously in the school systems from which they were graduated. They will want to bring a new and more wholesome point of view to bear upon the instructional policies of schools in which they will teach. For their information, the steps that have been proposed and taken to promote pupil progress will be reviewed.

Semiannual Promotions

Practice previously favored rather strongly the semiannual promotion of pupils.³ The advantages were listed as (1) reduction in the amount of retardation resulting from failure, (2) the acceleration of the bright child, and (3) a more frequent evaluation of pupil achievement. A study made a few years later showed that many school systems had changed their promotional policies from the semiannual to the annual plan.⁴ This change in policy over a brief period of time came about because of a greater interest in individual needs and differences and the growing emphasis upon education for the whole child rather than the narrow concept of growth in mastery of subject matter alone. Moreover, many of the values claimed for the semiannual promotion failed to appear, and administrators experienced several difficulties in the plan not found in scheduling on an annual basis.

Special and Double Promotions

The term *double promotions*, as employed here, refers to what is commonly known as skipping, that is, a promotion at the end of a semester or a year that permits the pupil to omit the work of a half or a whole year, depending on whether or not semiannual or annual promotions are followed. *Special promotion* refers to the advancement of the child during the course of a semester or year at whatever time such a procedure is considered advisable. The effect in terms of the amount of acceleration is, of course, the same in both procedures. However, the latter has the advantage of providing for the acceleration when it is needed, not weeks or months after the importance of such a move becomes apparent.

The chief argument for either form of promotion is that it

³ *Five Unifying Factors in American Education*, Ninth Yearbook, Department of Superintendence. Washington: National Education Association, 1931.

⁴ *Promotional Plans in City School Systems*, p. 10. Educational Research Service of the American Association of School Administrators and the Research Division of the National Education Association, Circular No. 9, November, 1938.

furnishes opportunity for keeping the superior child working at a level more nearly consistent with his ability than does the grade of work provided for him by normal progress. It also recognizes that the average or inferior pupil benefits occasionally from a special promotion, particularly when age and maturity are the underlying factors justifying advancement to a group of similar age and social development.

In opposition to the policy of special and double promotions, the argument has been advanced that the bright child may become socially maladjusted, crowded in his work, and, as a consequence, suffer psychologically or physically. It has been pointed out also that such a child finishes school too early and that he is too immature for college or employment. With regard to the acceleration of average and inferior pupils, a strong case is made by traditional teachers that pupils do not have enough academic background to meet the level of performance maintained by pupils in the higher grade. In reality, this means that the receiving teachers are faced with a problem of adapting curriculum and methods to a group of young people who are neither capable of following successfully the regular program nor interested in a sterile type of book learning. Many of these teachers are unable to cope with these pupils with the result that they condemn the promotion policy. In this respect, it is interesting to note how much more easily teachers become aroused by a policy of acceleration than they do by the evils of retardation.

Trial Promotions

This procedure involves the conditional promotion of pupils concerning whom it is difficult to determine whether greater benefit will result from a promotion or a failure. The pupil is given, at the beginning of the next school year or semester, a month or more to demonstrate that he can handle successfully the work of the grade to which he has been given the trial promotion. If he is unsuccessful, he is returned to the original grade as a failure, and, if successful, he is allowed to continue with the more advanced class. The procedure is best suited to

the elementary school but can also be used in the secondary school where the subject studied continues for more than a single year, as in English, for example.

There is some difference of opinion regarding the efficacy of the trial promotion, but many school administrators profess to see real advantages in it. Its success, however, like so many other aspects of sound educational practice, turns upon the attitudes and opinions of the teachers who work with it. Where previously reported studies presented evidence of strong support for trial promotions, the tendency today appears to be more in the direction of promotion without conditions attached to it.⁵ In the New York City public schools, according to Burke:

The instructional procedures for individual children in the annual reorganization setup should enable children without marked mental deficiencies to progress continuously. At the age of approximately 12, our elementary school children should then be advanced to a junior high school or to a 7A class of an 8B elementary school. This relatively permanent membership of a child with his chronological-age group will serve to help him grow up with desirable behavior attitudes and with a feeling that he has a part to play and a contribution to make to the welfare of his group.⁶

Studies of Prospective Failures

Another approach to the problem of promoting pupil progress is through the investigation of prospective failures. Too frequently teachers are prone to take the position that "a failing pupil is a failing pupil," and that there is little or nothing that can be done about such a case. The actual truth is that there are always discoverable reasons for the poor showing of any pupil. Furthermore, almost any cause other than extremely low mentality can be alleviated or entirely eliminated if discovered in time.

⁵ A good statement of the advantages and disadvantages of trial promotion may be found in the following report: *Five Unifying Factors in American Education*, pp. 74-78.

⁶ Regina C. M. Burke, "The New York Annual-Promotion Program," *American School Board Journal*, 107:42, 57. December, 1943.

In an effectively administered school, prospective failures will be discovered early in the school term. Each of these will then become the subject of study on the part of the individual teacher or the entire teaching staff. Even if the investigation is limited to a mere discussion in teachers' meetings of each prospective failure and of the probable causes of his difficulty, a great deal may be accomplished. The teacher in the high school, for example, may be surprised to learn that a near failure in his class is doing very acceptable work for the remaining teachers with whom he is enrolled. If this teacher is at all reasonable, there will arise in his mind immediately a question as to whether the difficulty is with the pupil or with his own conduct of the class. A relatively short time spent in the study of the case may reveal conditions that can easily be corrected, and the number of probable failures in the group is reduced by one.

Where the problem is attacked in a more thorough manner, a systematic investigation will be made of each case. The mental ability of the child, his achievement as measured by standardized tests, his health and general physical condition, his home environment, his out-of-school habits, his special interests, the extent and nature of his participation in extracurricular activities, his personal relationships with his teacher or teachers, his study habits, and his specific educational disabilities will come in for close scrutiny in an effort to discover the causes of his poor achievement. The final step will be the partial or complete correction of the cause and, where possible, the elimination of the pupil from the list of probable failures. Elaborate case studies are impractical, of course, in the average school system, but in no situation is the informal study of prospective failures impossible and in no situation is there a legitimate excuse for delaying the investigation until just before time to issue marks, when it is too late to do anything even if the cause of failure is discovered.

Ability Grouping

By ability grouping of pupils is meant the division of a class into groups with respect to their measured ability to succeed in

school work. Customarily pupils are divided according to the distribution of their intelligence quotients into three sections—slow, average, and fast—and an attempt is made to adopt instruction to the needs of each of these three groups.

Although the same general principles hold in all situations where ability grouping is practiced, the details of administration vary greatly. In some instances only two groups are provided as a means of reducing the spread of ability, whereas in others a grade or a class may be divided into four or even five different sections. Ordinarily, such grouping is not employed unless the number of pupils in a grade is large enough to justify their division into more than one class. In small schools, however, where the number of pupils in each grade is sufficient for only one class, the class is then divided by the teacher within a given room into different groups for instructional purposes. Some schools keep the different sections at approximately the same size, but a number of them handle slow pupils in relatively small groups. The measures used for classifying pupils also vary, though the most common ones are intelligence test scores, teachers' opinions, school marks, and achievement test results. These may be employed separately or in various combinations. Besides these measures or indexes of ability, estimates of social development, physiological maturity, and the chronological age of pupils have gained favor as bases for dividing pupils into different groups. Teachers may be assigned to groups according to their own particular interests and aptitudes, or the sections may be rotated in such a way that each teacher will handle one of them each year or semester.

Ability grouping has been a subject of strong controversy for some years. Arguments have been advanced on both sides upholding and condemning this device for improving pupil progress. Although the beginning teacher should take cognizance of the reasons for and against ability grouping, he should not forget that, in and of itself, it can contribute little or nothing to the problems of instruction. It merely paves the way for a better adaptation of learning experiences to the needs of the slow, the

average, and the bright. How effective that adaptation becomes will depend to a great extent upon the teacher more than upon any other single factor.

Individualization of Instruction

Individualization of instruction means the adaptation of the instruction by the classroom teacher to the varying abilities of the pupils for whom he is responsible, without necessarily any change in either the customary promotional procedures or the grade organization. The variable is the amount and quality of the work done and not the time spent in the grade or school division. This approach to the general problem of improving pupil progress cannot be thought of as a specific device or procedure like the trial or special promotion. The idea encompasses a wide variety of activities and teaching plans, all of which have as their general objectives the successful completion of the minimum essentials of the school grade or course by the largest possible number, and the largest educational growth on the part of each individual pupil consistent with his physical and mental capacities.

In its simplest form this procedure will consist of completely informal variations in activities in terms of the amount of work covered, the quality of the work done, and in the materials of instruction employed. There will be no formal classification of pupils into dull, average, and bright groups for all subjects and all situations. Instead, adaptations will be made in terms of specific situations and each child will be treated in accordance with his ability and interest in a particular subject or a particular unit of work. In reading, for example, bright pupils are encouraged to read those books which are most difficult and which will most forcibly challenge their greater capabilities. On the other hand, pupils who are having difficulty with their reading are encouraged to work with the simpler and easier materials, and for them emphasis during the class hour is placed on elementary reading skills and habits.

In the hands of the capable teacher these simple and flexible procedures represent a satisfactory approach to the problem of

individualizing instruction. In fact, many authorities are inclined to agree that the best solution resides in such methods rather than in formal grouping of pupils or in radical changes in grade organization or in promotional plans since they have as their principal goals the reduction of failure, the provision for each pupil of a quantity and quality of work adapted to his abilities, needs, and interests, the mastery by all of the minimum essentials, a large amount of individual responsibility on the part of the pupil, and, in general, the reduction of the evils associated with the lock-step procedures represented by the traditional assignment and recitation. The greatest virtues of such procedures should reside in the changed attitude of the teacher. Whether by this means or some other he is made to see the primary importance of the child in the educational process, the significance of individual differences among learners, and the necessity for a thorough evaluation of growth and an accurate determination of purposes, the results cannot be other than good. He has acquired a philosophy upon which may be based procedures and devices of his own making that are adapted to the particular situation in which he is working and which may or may not be patterned after those in use elsewhere.

Curriculum Reorganization

All problems involving the progress of pupils in a sense may be said to have their beginnings in a lack of adjustment between the curriculum and the child. Especially important, in this respect, is the failure on the part of many teachers to define clearly the purposes for which they are teaching and the needs of the pupils to be taught. Just what a child should have attained by way of growth in knowledge, skills, attitudes, habits, and appreciations in the fourth grade, for example, is left largely to chance in a great many classrooms. Teachers do not know, nor do they understand, the nature of the growth and development that a child should normally undergo at this age-grade level. The same criticism may be directed fairly at teachers in the senior high school. What, in point, should be the specific evidences of growth associated with a course in algebra, English, biology,

or American history? Few teachers, other than the very superior, have ever formulated real answers to this question. Most of them talk about the vague, general objectives they seek to have pupils realize, but even these statements are in terms of the subject, not in terms of changes desired in pupils. The majority are still influenced unduly by their academic specialization and their own skill in a particular field.

What is advocated here is not a general lowering of the so-called standards to which so many academic teachers cling, but rather an honest examination and definition on the teacher's part of the purposes for which he is teaching as they are related to the personal and social needs of the learners. If this were done thoroughly and objectively, it is more than likely that standards could even be raised so far as the performance of many pupils is concerned, especially if both the teacher and the pupil knew exactly what they were trying to accomplish. Such a process would eliminate much lost motion in teaching, remove the debris of numerous nonessentials from the program of study, reduce the misdirected efforts of pupils to a minimum by making functional and purposive that which is learned, and improving qualitatively and quantitatively the products of learning.

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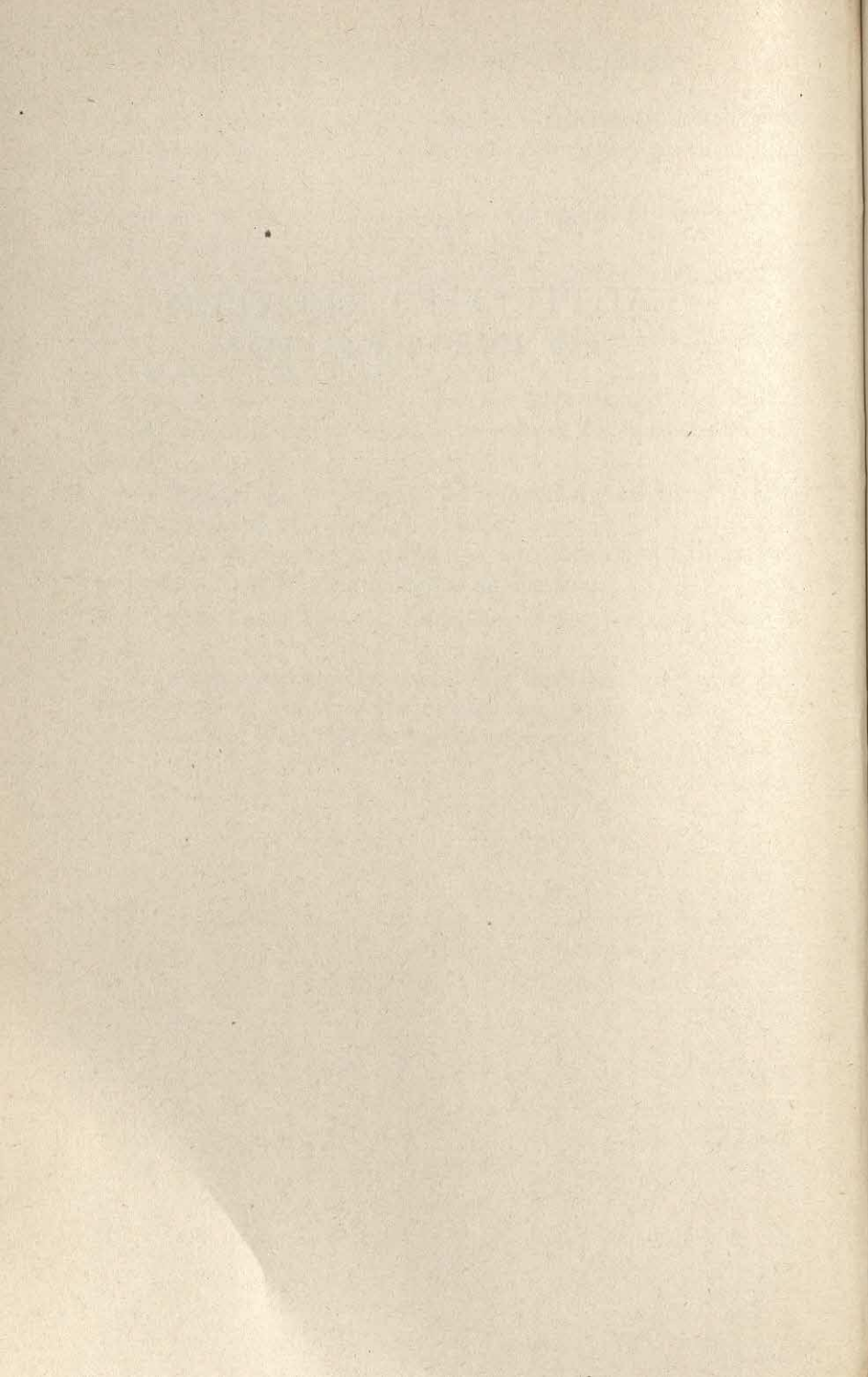
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Part V

ACTIVITIES RELATED
TO INSTRUCTION



Chapter 15

KEEPING RECORDS AND PREPARING REPORTS

THE SCOPE AND volume of the record and reporting activities carried on in modern elementary and secondary schools are very large today. They have grown rapidly in recent years with the expansion of school services and the shifting of emphases from subject matter to the study of children. Since it is essential that the beginning teacher understand his relationship to this important aspect of school organization and administration, the present chapter will be given over to a consideration of the need for records and reports, types of records maintained by schools, records kept by the teacher, records used by the teacher, and reports that are presently prepared by teachers in modern schools.

THE NEED FOR RECORDS AND REPORTS

There are several reasons why records and reports are indispensable to the successful operation of the school. In the first place, it is mandatory under state law that local school units keep accurate and complete child-accounting records of school-age children and employed minors. It is a further requirement of the law that periodic reports be prepared from these records and sent to the state superintendent of public instruction. Among others, these reports include the school census, membership of children in school, average daily attendance, losses and gains by transfer, and the number of part-time and full-time certificates issued for employment. In several states, the census and attendance figures are very important because they are used as a basis for the distribution of state aid to local school districts. For

many years, the amount of money distributed to the local districts in several states was determined almost exclusively by the data reported from the annual or biennial school census. Recently this use of the school census has been replaced by the average daily attendance, the number of certified teachers employed, the ratio of teachers to pupils, the number of children enrolled in school, and the ability of the local district to finance a sound educational program. Any one of these considerations may be used as a basis for the distribution of state school funds or a combination may be used in a formula for giving financial aid to local schools and equalizing educational opportunities throughout the state.

Where average daily attendance is employed as the major consideration in distributing state funds, a heavy responsibility falls upon the classroom teacher for maintaining accurate, daily records of attendance and for keeping pupils in regular attendance. Each child who is absent costs the school system a certain percentage of state money, since the allocation of this money is based upon periodic summaries of attendance reported by the local school system to the state department of public instruction. Even though some basis other than average daily attendance is used for determining the amount of state aid granted, nevertheless the teacher has the same legal and moral obligations to maintain complete and accurate child-accounting records.

In the second place, the rules and regulations of local boards of education either state specifically or imply clearly the need for records and reports. According to these rules and regulations, all school employees, including teachers, must keep essential records and make such reports as the board of education and superintendent may request. Equipped with a series of accurate records and organized reports, the administrative personnel and the board of education can get an over-all picture of the school in action and use these data for planning the future program, especially in translating this program into a budgetary statement of financial needs. Without such data, safe predictions could hardly be made regarding the number of teachers to be employed, plant facilities required for housing pupils and

meeting curricular demands for space, the amount of supplies and equipment to be purchased, textbooks and other instructional materials needed, and a number of other pertinent considerations that enter into the planning of instruction. When teachers understand the importance of records and reports in the organization and administration of the school, they are usually more willing to undertake the detailed work required of them in this respect.

Third, complete and accurate records are needed for undertaking various kinds of research. On the business side of school administration, cost accounting depends completely upon the existence of a comprehensive financial record system which permits those in charge to know exactly how funds are disbursed. Through a detailed study of disbursements, operating costs in all categories can be determined, financial leaks discovered without unnecessary delay, and savings effected which are essential to the efficient management of the school system. Detailed information accumulated over a period of years likewise enables responsible school officials to determine enrollment trends and meet demands that will be made for new educational facilities.

More important still, research based upon complete instructional records of pupil progress in school reveals the strengths and weaknesses of the educational program. From the application of standardized tests it may be found that pupils are one to two years below standard norms in ability to spell or to perform simple arithmetical computations. Test data may similarly bring out a disparity between the work pupils are expected to perform and their actual performance over a period of time. Studies of age-grade and age-progress, social and physical development, changes in attitudes and opinions, participation in school activities, the extent of failure and retardation, distribution of school marks, uses made of instructional materials, and the like are among the many items of records that enter into an appraisal of the total instructional program. Placed in the hands of administrators, supervisors, and teachers, the findings derived from such an appraisal point the direction and location in which desirable changes in instruction should be made.

Last, records and reports serve as essential means for developing a relationship with the home and for bringing about parental co-operation in the education of children. Reports issued to parents periodically throughout the school year must grow out of a well-organized and continuous system of records containing evidence of pupil progress. Conferences held with parents about their children should likewise revolve around an organized body of information that enables the teacher, the counselor, or the principal to discuss personal problems in terms of facts and not opinions. Not only does the collection of this information permit the teacher to objectify issues and point out trends in personal patterns of behavior, but also it breeds more respect on the part of parents toward the school and insures from them a fuller measure of co-operation in working for the attainment of educational purposes.

CHARACTERISTICS OF A FUNCTIONAL RECORD SYSTEM

As implied above, records and reports are used to satisfy the legal requirements of the state, to appraise the effectiveness of the instructional program, to assist in the administration of the school, to furnish research data for the statistical analysis and interpretation of policies and programs, and to develop co-operative and constructive relations with parents of pupils in school. The extent to which these and other purposes are realized depends in no small measure upon the standards by which the record and reporting system is established and the types of records that are developed and used in the school.

A functional record system has a number of definite characteristics which the beginning teacher should look for when he plans to utilize records for guidance and instructional purposes. To start with, the individual child is the primary unit of record keeping. Essential data should be recorded covering his preschool, school, and postschool life. This means that the data should be gathered continuously and include information that reveals his true condition at any given time. Moreover, such information should be accurate, well organized, pertinent, and justified solely on grounds of the contribution it can make either directly or in-

directly to the welfare of the pupil. Too often record systems provide for the collecting and recording of information that is irrelevant, repetitious, and useless in working with children or in appraising the value of the total instructional program.

A sound record system has other characteristics that are also essential to the efficiency and effectiveness of its operation. The forms used should be designed strictly in accordance with their function, printed on suitable and durable stock, compact in size, flexible enough to provide for modification or expansion, and should contain only such information as is functional. All members of the staff have a responsibility for keeping records peculiar to their fields of activity. Such records, however, should require a minimum of time and energy for making entries and not duplicate each other where duplication can be avoided. At the same time, active records should be maintained and located where they will be used to the greatest advantage by staff personnel. Unfortunately, in too many schools, records are kept in files and vaults which, though open to teachers, are too remote from the places and situations where they are most needed. In other instances, the files are so cluttered with unusable records and reports that teachers as well as other staff members lose interest and become discouraged when they seek information related to the work they are doing. A record system, then, should be designed carefully, organized efficiently, located strategically, and should contain all information essential to the achievement of the purposes for which it was established.

TYPES OF SCHOOL RECORDS

The beginning teacher who becomes thoroughly acquainted with the record and reporting system of a modern elementary or secondary school will discover that all records fall into three major classifications. A large number are classified as *instructional records* because they are related directly to the child and the instructional process carried on in his behalf. A second group are known as *administrative* or *derived records*. They concern the various administrative aspects of the total school program and are frequently summaries derived from instruc-

tional records. The third classification covers *historical records* or those which are retained from the preceding classifications for archival purposes.

Instructional Records

All instructional records are permanent in character. They come into existence with the initial entry of a child in school and follow him from grade to grade until he leaves school, transfers to another school, or completes his formal education. After that they are placed in the inactive file where they remain indefinitely until they are needed again for one reason or another. These records include a progressive accumulation of personal data about health, mental ability, scholastic achievements, social life, family background, home contacts, emotional status, vocational interests, and behavior patterns during the period of school attendance. More specifically, the instructional records maintained by the majority of schools carry information either on separate cards or in a cumulative folder containing the pupil's name, date of birth, place of birth, parents' names, parents' address, intelligence quotient, scores on standard tests, absence summaries, marks in each subject by semesters, ratings on personal traits, tardiness summaries, honors received, participation in extracurricular activities, nationality, color or race, vocational preferences, sex, reason for leaving school, rank in graduating class, and many other items. The cards on which space is provided for information of this character are known as *permanent record cards*.

Administrative Records

Administrative records, for the most part, are derived from records furnished to the principal by both instructional and non-instructional personnel. All attendance records, for example, provide daily, weekly, or monthly summaries prepared by teachers. From these summaries the principal is able to determine the total registration of the school, the number received by transfers, the number who are lost to other educational institutions or who

are permanent withdrawals, the membership of the school, i.e., the number who are registered plus receipts by transfers minus the number who are lost by transfer or withdrawal, the average membership for the year, the average daily attendance, the monthly percentage of attendance, and the average annual percentage of attendance. Similar uses are made of summary reports concerning the distribution of marks; percentage of promotion and failure; age-grade placement and age-grade progress; teachers' loads; class schedules; the nature and extent of guidance services; inventories of supplies, equipment, and textbooks; enrollments by grades, subjects, and curriculums; the number and percentage of nonresident and tuition pupils; unit costs for instruction, operation, and maintenance; the kind and amount of medical services; and the funds raised and disbursed for the support of the student activities program.

Besides the preceding list of administrative records, the principal and his immediate subordinates give careful attention to the compiling and recording of information related to several different aspects of school management. They maintain a file of individual records for all staff members showing the date of original employment, training and experience, legal qualifications, attendance, salary, marital status, and the like. Minutes of faculty meetings are filed in sequence, and notes made during supervisory observations and conferences are organized and arranged for future reference. Records are also made containing facts about the community, its leaders, attitudes, trouble spots, special-interest groups and related items pertinent to carrying on sound public relations. Every fire drill is made a matter of record in which the date, the time of day held, and the number of minutes required to clear the building are noted. All reports to parents, teachers, and the superintendent of schools, as well as administrative bulletins and news releases, go into the record files of the principal. Although the administrative records described here represent an adequate sampling of those kept in a modern school, the beginning teacher will come in contact with many others.

Historical Records

A final class of records found in schools today are those having historical value. They include both instructional and administrative records. Many of these records are retained strictly as a chronology of school events, such as the annual high school yearbook and similar student publications. Some are preserved for their value in supplying personal data needed for employment and character references requested by employers of former students. A number provide the raw data used in studying various trends and making predictions regarding future needs and developments of the school. Though practice differs among schools in the preservation of records, the permanent record card is used in virtually all educational institutions. There is a tendency, however, to incorporate this card in the cumulative record and thus provide a more comprehensive source of reference for any question that is raised regarding the character, citizenship, scholarship, and school history of a former pupil. In addition to the permanent record and the cumulative record, many schools place the principal's bulletins, minutes of faculty meetings, child-accounting reports, copies of the school calendar, financial statements, requisitions for supplies and equipment, various statistical summaries, and copies of the educational program in their historical files each year.

THE IMPORTANCE OF RECORDS TO THE TEACHER

Every classroom teacher has a definite responsibility for recording and reporting the individual progress of each pupil in his class and for supplying to the principal such information as is needed for administering efficiently the complete educational program. Because the amount of clerical labor involved in keeping records and preparing reports often becomes very heavy, many teachers object strenuously to this phase of their work and protest against the time that it takes from their teaching duties. Although there are valid grounds for complaint in schools where a fetish is made of records, the majority of teachers are willing to co-operate fully in any record-keeping system when they

understand the purposes behind it and are able to use the information placed at their disposal.

Aside from the child-accounting records required by law and the derived records used in administration, the importance of records to the teacher varies with the nature of the instructional program. Where emphasis is placed primarily upon subject-matter acquisition as the objective of learning, records are limited principally to an accounting of daily recitations and scores made on teacher-constructed and standardized tests. Where concern is shown for the total growth and development of the individual as a social person with respect to his attitudes, understandings, skills, habits, appreciations, and modes of behavior, records are regarded as source materials used for judging the amount and quality of progress brought about through school and community programs.

Despite the existence of such differences in educational thought and practice, the importance of records in facilitating the instructional process should be recognized by the teacher. According to Reinoehl and Ayer the following reasons are stated for keeping a sound system of records:

Records help the school

1. To locate each pupil quickly.
2. To have available the facts significant about each pupil.
3. To explain and remove undesirable conditions.
4. To find if all grade and legal requirements are met.
5. To determine if any administrative or other changes are desirable.
6. To find if school funds are adequate and wisely expended.
7. To make important investigations and case studies possible.
8. To reduce retardation and failure to a minimum.

Records help the classroom teacher

1. To know pupils when the school year begins.
2. To determine what work a pupil is capable of doing.
3. To provide learning activities suitable to each pupil.
4. To formulate a basis for the intelligent guidance of pupils.
5. To explain the behavior characteristics or unhappy conditions of any pupil.

6. To make possible the development of unusual capacities or exceptional talents.
7. To identify and make proper provisions for the mentally slow.
8. To make assignments to committee work and monitorial positions.
9. To make periodic reports correctly and on time.
10. To be properly informed when conferring with parents and others about a pupil.

Permanent records help the pupil

1. To receive fair consideration in his classification.
2. To do his best in making a good record.
3. To make progress in accordance with his ability.
4. To secure development of his natural capabilities.
5. To secure transfer of correct information to other schools when desired.
6. To receive proper adjustment and guidance.¹

Even a casual reading of this list of reasons for keeping records highlights their place and importance in the school, and especially their value to the teacher. A further clarification of their value will be brought out in succeeding paragraphs which deal specifically with records that are kept and used by the teacher.

RECORDS USED BY THE TEACHER

Several kinds of records are kept and used by the teacher in the course of his daily work. Some are valuable for the contribution they make to the administration of the school; others are valuable because they are essential to good instruction. These records are referred to as child-accounting records, business records, cumulative records, and teaching records. The responsibilities incumbent upon the teacher for keeping and using these records should be understood.

Child-Accounting Records

According to Moehlman, three major problems exist in the field of child accounting. The first problem is that of locating

¹ Charles Myron Reinoehl and Fred Carleton Ayer, *Classroom Administration and Pupil Adjustment*, p. 304. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., 1940.

the child within the community; the second is that of law enforcement by means of which the state insists that the child attend school; and the third concerns the keeping of records within the school for the purpose of protecting both the child and the institution.²

With the first entry of a child in school, a registration or initial enrollment card is made out for him indicating the date, name, address, date and place of birth, names of parents, and the school, if any, last attended. As soon as this card is completed and filed the teacher has a responsibility for keeping thereafter an accurate record of his attendance. This record will be kept on a daily attendance register in accordance with the directions for recording and computing data which are prescribed by the state educational authority.

Absence and tardiness are usually recorded by half days in the elementary school, and in the secondary school a daily attendance record is supplemented by reports of absence and lateness in each class throughout the school day. On the basis of these reports, the principal or his child-accounting clerk can determine immediately whether a pupil registered as being in school has failed to report to one or more of his classes. In the case of pupils who have been absent one or more days, schools often require that they present readmission slips to their classroom teachers before they are permitted to take part in the regular program. These slips are issued after pupils have rendered a satisfactory account of their absence and have qualified medically to re-enter the school.

In keeping the daily register and making monthly summary reports of attendance, the teacher will be asked to note other considerations that enter into the accounting for children. He will be requested to tabulate the number of pupils who transferred to different schools within the same district, between different districts, within the state, and between different states. A similar tabulation must be kept and reported for all pupils received by transfer both from within and outside the school district.

² Arthur B. Moehlman, *School Administration*, pp. 316-317. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1940.

These data are essential in the determination of membership, average daily, monthly, and annual attendance.

At the same time the teacher may be requested to report on the causes of absence and to indicate the chronic cases needing special investigation for enforcement purposes. In doing this the teacher will probably find that illness of the child and illness in the home are responsible for the highest percentage of nonattendance, with the economic and social incapacity of the parent or child coming next in order. A fairly high percentage of cases will be attributable to unadjustment and maladjustment in school, though the reasons given for absence may suggest other classifications. Where truancy is discovered, parents may be required to appear in court to answer for their failure to see that the child attended school. Very often this extreme action can be avoided if sufficient time is taken by attendance officials to investigate the causes of truancy and to bring about changes in the conditions of home and school life that are responsible for it. In this respect, the teacher can do a great deal to facilitate a better adjustment of the child to the school.

The teacher may be requested to make similar reports concerning the percentage and reasons for tardiness among pupils in his class or his homeroom. These reports may show the existence of conditions harmful to the administration of the school and detrimental to the welfare of the pupils involved. They may further disclose the existence of attitudes and habits of conduct that have their origin in practices of the school itself or in various circumstances of home living. Like chronic cases of nonattendance, frequent and persistent lateness must be studied on an individualized basis and the causes discovered before remedial measures are adopted.

Business Records

Besides the child-accounting records and summary reports of these records, teachers are required to keep other records related to the business routine of the school. These include inventories of supplies and equipment used for instruction, lists of textbooks loaned to pupils, requests for repairs and alterations, receipts

and expenditures associated with student activities, and special budgetary appropriations. Because such records are vital in administration, care must be exercised in keeping them accurately both for the protection of the teacher and the convenience of those who are charged with their use.

Although the need for such records may be slight to teachers in small elementary and secondary schools, and even to teachers in some departments of larger schools, their importance to other teachers is pointed. For example, teachers of music, art, home economics, agriculture, science, manual training, and shop courses have a heavy responsibility for the care and efficient use of a quantity of supplies and much valuable equipment. On a strictly financial basis, the cost of such supplies and equipment may run into hundreds of dollars. The teacher in charge of them must assume a responsibility for seeing that they are used properly and that they are accounted for at least annually. Accordingly, careful and detailed records must be maintained and analyzed for business and instructional purposes. Accurate bookkeeping must also be done with respect to fees collected from pupils and charges levied for losses and damage occasioned by them in their handling of supplies and equipment. Usually, the teacher undertakes this responsibility at the direction of the board of education acting through the superintendent and the principal of the school.

Even the classroom teacher who does not have a shop, a laboratory, or a special subject requiring the use of a large quantity of supplies and equipment must keep accurate records of textbooks and other instructional materials. All such materials are charged to the teacher by the storage clerk or by the librarian from whom some of them are borrowed. In either case the teacher must assume responsibility for the care of these materials and answer for their damage or loss. He must likewise keep a record of the books and materials charged to pupils and hold them accountable for any destruction or loss that may occur during the period of their use either in school or at home.

Unless the teacher co-operates fully in keeping accurate and continuous records of the instructional uses for supplies and

equipment, satisfactory budgetary estimates cannot be made regarding the quantity of supplies needed on a per pupil basis in various instructional fields and at different grade levels throughout the school system. The problem, however, is one of keeping essential business records without imposing an excessive clerical burden upon the teacher.

Cumulative Records

The permanent or cumulative record form found in every public elementary and secondary school is a tool used for summarizing all important information that is available about a pupil. Upon the basis of this information, judgments can be made regarding the potentialities of the pupil and the rate of advancement he has shown along various lines of growth. In this respect, the cumulative record affords not only a cross-sectional picture of what the pupil is like but also a long-range view of his development. The extent, however, to which the cumulative record form becomes an efficient tool for studying and working with the pupil depends upon the kind of data it contains, the location and availability of the record, and how well it is maintained and kept up to date.

In discussing the development and wider use of the cumulative record for guidance purposes, Boyer makes the following observation:

Teachers are coming to see more clearly the essential concept that real education involves the whole integrated personality of the individual. They are no longer satisfied with a cross-section, snap-shot view of an individual at a given time or in a given situation. The evaluation of a pupil's behavior must top all aspects of his physical, mental, moral, aesthetic, and emotional growth. . . . In order to provide anything approaching such a substantial basis for the evaluation of pupil behavior the cumulative record should carry continuing entries of pupil development in all significant aspects from physical growth to emotional security.³

³ Philip A. Boyer, *The Contribution of the Cumulative Record as a Whole to the Guidance of Pupils in Senior High School*, p. 5. School District of Philadelphia, Department of Superintendence, 1943 (Mimeographed).

Recognizing certain inadequacies of the cumulative record form in transcribing and recording masses of information regarding the progress of pupils, entire school systems in many communities have adopted the cumulative pocket-file folder for collecting and preserving valuable pupil records. Records can be slipped into this pocket folder with a minimum of effort and used singly or together in studying a given pupil. The advantage of this arrangement lies in the fact that all records concerning a pupil are readily available for any comprehensive analysis of his difficulties. These records include mental and achievement test scores, interest questionnaires, health examination reports, descriptions of disciplinary and behavior problems, accidents reported, conferences held with parents, family history, correspondence, participation in extracurricular activities, anecdotal records or behavior journals, vacation and work experience, scholastic achievements, special rewards received, and any other type of record thought to be important in presenting a complete and balanced picture of the pupil.

Because this collection of records is so important to the guidance work carried on by either homeroom or core teachers, the cumulative folder is permitted to remain in the classrooms of these teachers. Where this arrangement exists, a permanent record card containing the most frequently used cumulative information is filed in the office of the principal. In this way the needs of both the teacher and the administration are satisfied.

The beginning teacher should make every effort to familiarize himself with the information recorded on the permanent record card or filed in the cumulative pocket-folder. He will find in some schools that the items covered on the permanent record card are inadequate in scope for diagnostic purposes, and that it is necessary to secure separate records from different departments of the school. The health record may be kept in the health department office, the home-background record in the files of the visiting teacher, the guidance record with the counselor, the anecdotal record with the homeroom teacher, and the record of participation in extracurricular activities with the dean of boys, the dean of girls, or the director of the student activities

program. Such a decentralization of the record system, it is true, will discourage many teachers from seeking a complete history of the pupil, but even so the new teacher should become acquainted with all existing records and analyze their contents for possible use in working with pupils.

Some of the uses which the teacher can make of these records may be summarized briefly. They can be used to (1) study the rate of progress which a pupil has made over a period of years, (2) determine his points of greatest strength and weakness, (3) define the personal and social problems needing attention, (4) understand the causative factors underlying personality and character traits, (5) help each pupil to make the most of the opportunities provided by the school, (6) segregate special problem cases that call for the attention of a psychologist or psychiatrist, (7) adjust classroom teaching to the needs of individual pupils, and (8) bring pupils to an honest and objective realization of their own interests and capacities.

Boyer believes that better results will be obtained in the use of cumulative records when pupils understand their value and have a part in keeping them. He states that:

Pupils will take tests, answer questions, provide autobiographies, and similar materials with great interest if they realize that the program is designed to help them understand themselves rather than to afford the threatening gesture of a cold, revealing record that may hound them at a latter day. Good cumulative records are cooperatively devised and thoroughly understood by both teacher-counselor and pupil concerned.⁴

Boyer points out, however, that pupil co-operation in constructing a cumulative record should be restricted to the keeping of his own record. Unless the pupil has full confidence that his weaknesses and personal peculiarities will not be exposed to general view, he is apt to hold back information that should go into the record.

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 9.

Teaching Records

Records used directly in classroom instruction will be known, for purposes of this discussion, as *teaching records*. In a sense, it can be said that all records maintained in a school are related to instruction; otherwise there is no justifiable reason for keeping them. It has been pointed out, however, that some of these records are valuable for the contribution they make indirectly to the facilitation of the instructional process, whereas others are an integral part of the learning that is carried on by the teacher with the child. It is this latter classification of records that will be considered in the paragraphs that follow.

In a modern school, teaching records play a prominent part in the development of any unit. Complete records are kept by both the teacher and the pupils of the thinking done and the decisions reached during each phase of the unit. Starting with a statement of the need for the unit as seen by the pupils, a running account is made of the problem around which the unit is developed, the issues involved, the outcomes likely to result, the activities selected that lead to a better understanding or a solution of the problem, the materials required, and the complete plan of work agreed upon for undertaking the unit. As the unit progresses, additional records may be required for determining the extent to which various aspects of the plan have been carried out and how effectively the plan has been executed, the value of the activities selected, the materials used, and the results achieved.

For guidance purposes, pupils may likewise record evidence of their own growth and progress. These may include descriptions of significant experiences, free reading of books and periodicals, attendance at movies and plays, scores on tests and examinations, mistakes and corrections in language usage, participation in student activities, and many other personal matters having significance. At the same time, pupil reactions concerning personal progress provide the teacher with excellent leads and opportunities for individual and group guidance in the classroom. In using this evaluation of personal progress for guidance purposes,

the teacher must likewise have records of his own which include daily observations of the pupil's problems and accomplishments. Taken together these records complement each other and serve to establish a mutual basis for planning.

From another point of view, the modern teacher keeps a detailed record of each unit that is developed with a group. The unit is written up after it has been completed and often follows an outline in which the experiences of the unit can be organized. The outline may call for a statement of the need for the unit, the approach activities used, statements of the problem as derived from the pupils, the activities used in solving the problem, forms of social action growing out of the unit, purposes or fields of experience peculiar to the unit, pupil and teacher materials used, evaluation procedures followed, and the time required for completing the unit. The collection of these records actually amounts to a handbook or manual of suggestions that are invaluable in planning new or related units.

It is evident that teaching records like those referred to above should be systematically classified and filed for ready reference. They should be filed both by pupils and by subjects in pocket folders and standard letter folders, depending upon their size and volume. It is quite possible that several of these and other kinds of teacher records kept in modern schools will be eliminated as evaluative instruments undergo further refinement and experience dictates which ones have the greatest value for guidance and instruction.

THE PREPARATION OF REPORTS

The beginning teacher should realize that various kinds of reports are necessary for the efficient organization and administration of the school. Factual bases for reaching important decisions regarding policies and programs, for keeping the board of education and the taxpayers of the community fully and accurately informed about the conditions and needs of the school, for satisfying the requirements of the law, and for acquainting parents with the progress of their children are some of the more outstanding purposes for which reports are prepared. The pri-

mary data used in preparing reports are taken from the records described in the foregoing sections of this chapter.

Reports to the Principal

The task of preparing reports falls directly upon the teacher. He is usually required to make reports to administrative officers either on a daily, weekly, monthly, semiannual, or annual basis. The reports made by the teacher cover a wide variety of subjects. Although the character and number differ between schools, the more common reports deal with attendance, enrollments, class membership, losses by transfer and dropout, reasons for irregular attendance, and marks assigned to pupils. In addition, many teachers are required to report notices of potential pupil failures sent to parents; books requisitioned, loaned to pupils, damaged and lost, and repairs and replacements needed; supplies and equipment ordered, amounts used, and the quantity returned to storage at the close of the school year; library materials borrowed for class use; indigent pupils needing particular kinds of assistance; student fees and funds handled; complete details on any accident involving a pupil while on school property; promotions and failures by semester or year; the distribution of marks received by pupils; scores on standardized tests taken by pupils; textbooks used or units developed; age-grade progress of pupils; needed repairs and remodeling of classroom facilities; and a personal account of professional books read, meetings attended, and college courses taken to qualify for salary increments.

The preparation of any report imposes upon the teacher a responsibility for seeing that the information stated is accurate, that the report complies with the form specified by the administrative officer who makes the request, and that the report is completed within the time set. The teacher will find that the work of preparing a report is speeded when accurate and complete records are available. If records have been kept poorly, the job of preparing a report may become exasperating and wasteful of time. Repeated often enough, such an experience leads to the development of antagonistic attitudes toward report preparation

and creates unfavorable opinion about the teacher on the part of the administrative staff.

Reports to Parents

The same degree of thoroughness and accuracy must be exercised in preparing reports to parents. These reports are sent periodically throughout the school term and at such other times as parental co-operation is needed for protecting and promoting pupil welfare. They concern the progress or lack of progress being made by pupils, findings on health adjustment difficulties, course elections, and various school events. Such reports carry out a legal and moral obligation of the school to keep the parents informed about the growth and development of their children.

It has been traditionally a practice in schools to appraise the accomplishments of each pupil and to translate the results into a system of marks. The marks have been reported on home-contact cards to parents at regular intervals and copied into the pupil's permanent record for the purpose of giving or withholding credit toward graduation. Just so long as the objectives of education were limited to achievement in subject matter, measuring and reporting the amount of learning that took place was a fairly easy matter.

The achievement of pupils, under a traditional system of marking, has often been expressed in terms of percentages, but more commonly in terms of a five-point letter or number scale. In some instances the scale has been reduced to three letters standing for above average, average, and below average, whereas in a number of schools only two letters have been used, namely, "S" and "U" to indicate satisfactory and unsatisfactory progress. Many parents and teachers have felt that the traditional type of report card does not provide an adequate description of a pupil's progress. They recognize that the symbols or marks given are too general to have much meaning other than to indicate the fact that the child falls within one bracket or another on the scale employed and that his standing is a relative one among the members of the class. The uncertainty about the method of reporting pupil achievement accounts for the range of difference found

in the report forms used by many elementary and secondary schools.

With the change in educational thinking that has taken place in recent years, greater emphasis has been placed upon the broader aspects of personal and social development. This has been reflected in the report card forms of various school systems, even though subject-matter divisions are still retained in the curriculum. An example of the transitional type of report card is shown in Figures 35 and 36. Developed by a group of administrators and teachers in the elementary schools of Philadelphia, the two inside pages reproduced here are divided between the personal and social habits of the child on one side and his growth in subject-matter achievement on the other. The front of the card contains a message to parents from the superintendent and entries concerning attendance. The back of the card lists the name of the school, the teacher, and the principal together with the date, room number, and grade. Provision is also made on the last page for a statement of the physical defects disclosed by the school medical inspector which need to be corrected and the signature of the parent or guardian at each reporting period.

Because the system of reporting pupil progress has undergone a change, the new teacher will do well to familiarize himself at the beginning of the school year with the form used and the practices followed in preparing home reports. Moreover, he will find that the nature of the reporting form itself offers suggestive leads to the philosophy of education which the school is trying to carry out. If the new teacher is employed in a modern school, he will discover that serious efforts are made to inform the parent about all aspects of the pupil's growth—physical, intellectual, social, and emotional. Positive statements will be made regarding specific habits, attitudes, appreciations, and achievements of the pupil. Parents will be asked to co-operate in stimulating further growth through their efforts in the home. In this respect, the report will be more diagnostic than any used in traditional schools.

The teacher in the modern school will base much of his report

PERSONAL AND SOCIAL GROWTH						
Omission of a mark means SATISFACTORY PROGRESS.						
A cross (X) means UNSATISFACTORY PROGRESS.						
The habits listed below are considered necessary for the personal and social growth of this pupil.	7 Weeks	13 Weeks	First Term	7 Weeks	13 Weeks	Second Term
SOCIAL HABITS:						
Plays well with others						
Respects the rights and property of others						
Obeys promptly						
Is courteous in speech and action						
WORK HABITS:						
Works well with others						
Works alone without help when necessary						
Makes good use of time and materials						
Finishes useful work						
Responds quickly to directions						
Produces neat and careful work						
HEALTH HABITS:						
Keeps fingers and materials away from mouth						
Keeps self clean						
Keeps clothing clean						
Practices good posture						
This pupil has rendered useful service as a member of the following school and classroom service groups:						
7 Weeks _____						
13 Weeks _____						
First Term _____						
7 Weeks _____						
13 Weeks _____						
Second Term _____						

FIGURE 35. Provision for Reporting Personal and Social Growth on the Philadelphia Elementary School Report Card.

GROWTH IN SUBJECT MATTER EXPERIENCE

S = SATISFACTORY PROGRESS; progress acceptable for *this* pupil. } (To be entered only after subject heads.)
U = UNSATISFACTORY PROGRESS; not making progress acceptable for *this* pupil. }
✓ = COMMENDABLE PROGRESS for *this* pupil. (To be entered only after S.)
X = Specific skills which need to be strengthened. (To be entered only after sub-headings.)

SUBJECTS AND SKILLS	7 Weeks	13 Weeks	First Term	7 Weeks	13 Weeks	Second Term
ORAL ENGLISH						
Expresses thoughts clearly						
Speaks correctly and plainly						
Uses good vocabulary						
WRITTEN ENGLISH (Grade 3B only)						
Expresses thoughts clearly						
Writes interestingly						
Uses good vocabulary						
READING						
Understands what is read						
Reads with satisfactory speed						
Masters new words without help						
Reads distinctly and with expression						
SPELLING						
ARITHMETIC						
Learns number facts						
Is accurate						
Works with satisfactory speed						
Reads and understands problems						
HANDWRITING						
HEALTH EDUCATION						
SOCIAL STUDIES (History, Geography, Civics)						

The school curriculum includes *equally important* activities in these additional fields:
ART, INDUSTRIAL ARTS, MUSIC, NATURE, and PHYSICAL EDUCATION.
 This pupil has shown *Special Skill* in the following of these fields:

7 Weeks _____

13 Weeks _____

First Term _____

7 Weeks _____

13 Weeks _____

Second Term _____

FIGURE 36. Provision for Reporting Subject-Matter Experience on the Philadelphia Elementary School Report Card.

to the parent upon a carefully organized system of records, including anecdotal reports, classroom observations, records of interviews with the pupil, the analysis of materials contained in the cumulative folder, and self-appraisal records kept by the pupil. He will also utilize findings from tests he has constructed and the results he has obtained from some of the newer evaluation instruments. These will produce evidence of the pupil's ability to interpret data, apply principles, generalize, and do critical and logical thinking. They will likewise indicate his work habits, study skills, social attitudes, social adjustment, and quality of social sensitivity.

In some modern schools, the periodic sending of a formal report card has been abolished in favor of individual letters to parents whenever the teacher believes it is desirable to make a comprehensive report on the pupil's progress. Although this procedure in reporting has a great deal of merit, it is probably not feasible in schools where the teacher meets a large number of pupils each day; the task simply of writing such letters would place too heavy a burden on the teacher. A modification of this idea, however, is reported by Reinoehl and Ayer who state that:

Personal messages by pupils to their parents developed from group thinking under teacher guidance have been used with success. They may properly contain information about attendance, unfavorable physical conditions, specific achievements, desirable habits, skills, and attitudes acquired, some difficulties met, points where further improvement is needed, and progress plans.⁵

Provision is made at the close of the letter for comments by the teacher and reactions of the parent.

The new teacher will find that it is necessary to make various other types of reports to parents throughout the school year. Medical examinations may reveal serious defects that need prompt correction. These must be brought to the attention of parents,

⁵ Myron Reinoehl and Fred Carleton Ayer, *Classroom Administration and Pupil Adjustment*, p. 327. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., 1940.

and in some instances clinics and medical centers must be named where cases can be referred for treatment without expense or at relatively low costs. Unless teachers take initiative in stimulating parents to action, defects are often allowed to continue to the detriment of the pupil. Beginning cases of unadjustment and maladjustment should be reported to parents before they are permitted to become too serious. Such cases can be handled best through conferences in which the facts are stated and parental assistance is sought in planning and carrying out a home and school program to facilitate adjustment. Reports to parents are often required when pupils make their course elections in the secondary school. The parent is asked to give his approval in writing of the choices made by the pupil before formal registration takes place. In this way the school is protected and the teacher has an opportunity to point out to the parent any unwise choices made by the pupil. As a rule, most parents are appreciative of the interest shown by the teacher in making this type of report. Finally, there are a number of school events that must be reported to the parent when they involve the child. For example, the parent should be informed and his consent asked before a pupil is allowed to take part in a field trip, practice a play after school hours, or engage in highly competitive sports. Many parents have peculiar attitudes toward participation in certain types of school activities and their rights must be respected. The teacher will find however that they are generally co-operative when reports are made in advance about the nature and value of the activities in which their children wish to engage.

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with respect to (1) the content of records and reports, (2) critical considerations affecting scope and use of records, and (3) the co-operative development of records and reports.

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Chapter 16

USING THE SCHOOL PLANT AND EQUIPMENT

ELSEWHERE it has been suggested that the teacher too frequently assumes that his responsibilities to the school end with the instruction of the particular classes assigned him. Whatever the opinion of the individual teacher may be respecting this assumption, there is ample evidence that school superintendents and principals do not lend it their support. Although the modern school administrator recognizes that the major business of the classroom teacher is the teaching assignment, he takes the position that there are other important responsibilities that cannot be neglected if the teacher is to meet his obligations to the administration and to the taxpayer who furnishes the funds from which his salary is paid.

One of the more important of these secondary obligations of the teacher is that of co-operation and assistance in the care and operation of the school plant and its equipment. Janitor service and its associated problems are primarily administrative responsibilities, but it is almost impossible for a superintendent or principal to obtain the proper care and operation of a school building and its equipment without the co-operation of the teaching staff in a number of important respects.

Those responsible for the conduct of the schools of the nation are obligated, as agents of the people, to see that the vast investments in school property are properly cared for, and that expenditures for operation and maintenance are reduced to a minimum consistent with the proper upkeep and effective use of the plant. Furthermore, the educational responsibilities of school administrators and teachers have not been properly discharged

until the physical environment of the child is as sanitary and as healthful as can be produced with the buildings and equipment at hand. Such an environment is made possible through cleanliness and the intelligent operation of the service systems of the school building. Finally, both administrators and teachers should recognize that they have a selfish interest in the effective maintenance and economical operation of school buildings and equipment. Money expended for capital outlay, for operation, and for maintenance cannot be used for instruction. Consequently, waste in any of these particulars is almost certain to result in reduced amounts for salaries.

HEATING AND VENTILATION

For many years, in fact until near the close of the last century, it was generally held by students of ventilation that the most important consideration in providing proper conditions in a school-room or any other similar situation was the chemical composition of the air. The emphasis was largely upon the ill effects that were thought to result from an excessive carbon dioxide content or from toxic, organic substances present in expired air. Considerable emphasis likewise was placed on the idea that air that had been breathed was laden with germs of infectious diseases. Whether the emphasis was on one or all of these factors, the general point of view was that the important consideration was the content of the air and what took place at first in the lungs and subsequently in other internal organs of the body. The natural conclusion from such theories was that that system of ventilation was best that provided for the greatest proportionate air change within a limited space of time, and thereby reduced to a minimum the carbon dioxide content, organic toxins, and the disease-bearing bacteria.

The Theory of Ventilation

Experiments have shown that all of these three factors are of relatively minor importance in securing healthful conditions in a classroom and that the emphasis needs to be placed, not upon the chemical content of the air that we breathe and in which we

work, but rather upon its physical properties. In other words, it appears that good ventilation is conditioned on what takes place on the surface of the body rather than on what occurs in the lungs and other internal organs immediately affected by breathing.

The newer conception of ventilation, commonly known as the *thermal theory*, places the emphasis primarily upon three factors—temperature, humidity, and air motion. According to this belief, the ill effects resulting from poor ventilation are occasioned by the fact that the skin, which is a temperature regulator for the body, is assisted or hindered in its work according to the temperature of the surrounding air, the relative humidity of the air, and the amount of air motion. These three factors are all interrelated and one cannot properly be controlled except in terms of the other two. A relatively high temperature may produce no ill effects if the humidity is low or if there is sufficient air motion. On the other hand, a relatively low temperature may be comfortable if the humidity is high and the air motion is reduced to a minimum. Temperature is the factor of most significance, but it is so closely associated with the other two that all must be adjudged of primary importance.

The thermal theory does not ignore entirely odors and the dust and bacteria content of the air. However, experiments have all demonstrated that air-borne infections are rare and of minor importance and that the bacteria content of air is a matter of secondary consideration in ventilation. Odors are not harmful except in the psychological effect produced, and, although authorities still give some consideration to their reduction through dilution of the air and chemical methods, the primary emphasis in this connection is on the elimination of the source of the odors.

Heating and Ventilating Systems

Almost all authorities are today agreed on the conditions that should be sought in the heating and ventilation of a school building, but there are wide differences of opinion as to which type of heating and ventilating equipment will produce these condi-

tions in the most effective and economical manner. As a consequence, we find in the school buildings of the country almost every type of heating and ventilating equipment conceivable, ranging in complexity from the ordinary door and window arrangement, such as we have in most of our homes, to exceedingly complicated and expensive mechanical systems which provide for a forced air supply and forced exhaust, automatic control of temperature and humidity, an air washer, recirculation of heated air, and even an ozone apparatus for the elimination of odors. Each system has its particular exponents and none seems to have been proved as yet to be superior to all others, except perhaps in special situations. However, the development and general acceptance of the thermal theory outlined above has tended to place less emphasis on the movement of vast quantities of air by mechanical means, and has encouraged a return to simpler and less expensive methods.

The Task of the Teacher

Every teacher is not expected to have a technical knowledge of theories of ventilation and of heating and ventilating systems. However, the position is taken that it is the business of the teacher to know enough of the general principles underlying the problem to make it possible for him to understand in an elementary fashion any system that he encounters and to co-operate in an intelligent manner in the operation of the system.

It is impossible to say just what a teacher will or will not be expected to do in the operation of the heating and ventilating systems of a particular school. Too much depends on the size of the school and the type of equipment installed. However, the responsibilities of teachers in this connection can be rather satisfactorily portrayed by an enumeration of some of the mistakes that are most commonly made. There is, for example:

1. The teacher who, through neglect or because of a lack of knowledge, keeps the temperature of the classroom much higher than can possibly be justified.
2. The teacher who permits the temperature of the room to get too high and then, instead of cutting off the source of heat.

throws the windows open, thereby wasting accumulated heat and keeping the temperature of the room fluctuating from hot to cold through the period or session.

3. The teacher who makes little or no effort to develop a temperature sense, and who consequently does not recognize that the temperature of the room is changing until it has reached an extreme condition in one direction or the other.

4. The teacher who fails to recognize that air motion and humidity help to determine whether or not a particular temperature reading is too low, approximately right, or too high.

5. The teacher who seeks to eliminate the typical schoolroom odor only through window ventilation or other means of air dilution, forgetting that the best remedy is through proper instruction in personal hygiene.

6. The teacher who does not understand the principle of automatic temperature control and who tampers in an amateurish fashion with the thermostat or permits pupils to do so.

7. The teacher who attempts to cool off a room where automatic control is provided by opening a window directly in line with the thermostat, thereby keeping all heating units turned on.

8. The teacher who cannot comprehend when informed that ventilation will be adequately provided for without the use of the windows and that keeping them closed will not only save on operating costs but may even cause the system to operate more effectively.

9. The teacher who permits valves in ducts or vents to remain closed, thereby cutting off the intended source of air or the means for its exhaust.

10. The teacher who sometimes covers up the source of air supply or an exhaust vent in cold weather, when an increased supply of heat would have offered the proper solution.

11. The teacher who permits pupils to place their wraps or books on top of unit ventilators, thereby cutting off in part the source of heat, the air supply, and air motion.

12. The teacher who does not operate the windows in accordance with the needs of the particular system with which he is dealing.

LIGHTING THE CLASSROOM

The modern classroom depends for proper lighting upon the natural illumination provided by the windows and upon artificial lighting fixtures. In a well-constructed building the window area and design are planned so that artificial lighting will not be necessary except on gray or dark days. The intent in equipping a classroom with artificial lights is to furnish illumination when the room is used at night and to provide a supplementary source of light during the day when the natural illumination becomes inadequate.

One of the common bases for judging the amount of illumination in a classroom is the actual intensity of the light on the darkest working surface in the room. Light intensity is measured by means of the photometer or illumination meter, and is expressed in terms of footcandles or the light intensity produced on a surface by a standard candle at a distance of one foot from the surface. The absolute minimum of lighting for the classroom or study hall has been placed at 20 footcandles, with 30 as the recommended minimum. For other school units the standards vary from ten to 30 footcandles for the auditorium to 50 to 75 footcandles for a drafting or sewing room.

As it is impracticable for those responsible for the operation of a school building to evaluate lighting conditions by the actual measurement of intensity alone, standards have been developed which take into account two other factors of major importance—the reflection of light and the brightness of light. When light falls upon a surface, part of it is absorbed and the remainder is reflected. The amount or percentage of the light reflected conditions the brightness of the room. Illuminating authorities are more concerned today with the question of how well pupils can see than with how much light they have.

Artificial lighting fixtures are provided in school buildings to supplement the natural illumination during the day, and to make possible the use of the building at night for school and community programs. Under standard conditions each classroom of ordinary size is equipped with four to six lighting fixtures of

the semidirect type, semi-indirect, or indirect type. In these types of lighting fixtures the immediate source of light is hidden from the eye and the light is either diffused through a translucent shade or reflected completely from the ceiling. More recent plans for providing adequate illumination at all times call for the installation of a photoelectric cell which automatically switches the lights on in part of the room or in the entire room when natural illumination falls below a set standard in number of footcandles. The same mechanical arrangement turns the lights off when there is sufficient intensity of illumination. Although the cost of controlled illumination is somewhat higher the gains in preventing eyestrain in children and creating a more desirable atmosphere for learning cannot be measured in dollars and cents.

The Task of the Teacher

In the absence of automatically controlled artificial illumination, the teacher has a responsibility to see that adequate light is provided at all times, and that the waste in the operation of artificial lighting fixtures is reduced to a minimum. When the teacher fails to carry out this responsibility properly, conditions may prevail in the classroom, as illustrated in Figure 37, that are harmful to vision. In many instances these conditions may prevail without the teacher's being aware of them.¹ In this particular test, which was carried on in the morning of a dull and rainy day, the values in natural light intensity were found to vary a good deal from one part of the room to another. Values below ten footcandles, as indicated by the broken line, were regarded at the time this test was made as insufficient.

Although teachers err frequently in failing to see that adequate lighting is provided in the classroom, the more common mistake is that of wasting electricity by using the artificial lights when they are not needed or when they would not be needed if full advantage was taken of natural illumination. So poorly have teachers handled the lighting of classrooms, both from the stand-

¹Fred W. Frostic, "Automatic Light Control is Needed in the Modern School," *Nation's Schools*, 12:11-14. November, 1933.

point of hygiene and economy, that there is every reason to favor the installation and use of photoelectrically controlled artificial lighting. It is difficult to formulate rules that will be applicable to all situations, but there are a few principles which, if heeded, would eliminate to a considerable extent the dangers of inadequate classroom lighting and the waste resulting from faulty control of artificial lights. These principles may be summarized as follows:

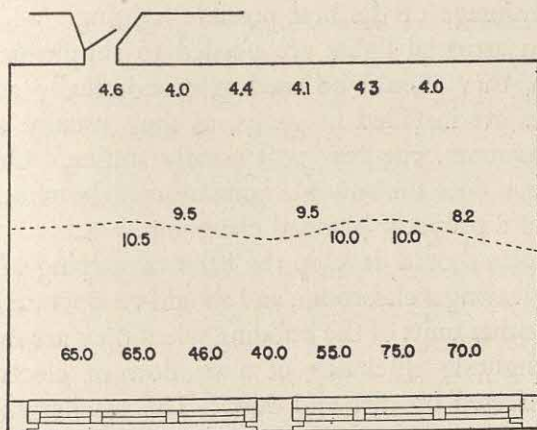


FIGURE 37. Footcandles of Illumination at the Working Surface of Desks.

1. Though it is the business of the teacher to economize in the use of artificial light, care must be taken to see that economy in this direction is not overemphasized at the expense of pupils' eyes.

2. The artificial lights in a classroom should never be turned on until all available natural light has been utilized. Any teacher deserves condemnation who uses artificial lights with part of the available window area shaded or otherwise covered.

3. The upper portion of the window furnishes the best light, particularly for the corridor side of the room, and should be used whenever possible.

4. When all the window area is not needed, light from the left and rear is to be preferred to light from the left and front.

5. Window shades are placed in classrooms primarily to control light and sunshine and only secondarily for appearance. Consequently, they should be adjusted in terms of the best lighting conditions regardless of appearance.

6. The windows of a classroom should not be obstructed by curtains, posters, or stickers.

7. Glare on desks and blackboards can frequently be reduced or eliminated by proper adjustment of window shades.

8. Pupils with poor vision should be seated where they may have the advantage of the best possible lighting.

9. When artificial lights are needed to supplement natural illumination, they should be used as economically as possible. When lights are installed in gangs, as they usually are in the standard classroom, one row will usually suffice. Only rarely in the daytime does the row of lights nearest the windows need to be used in a properly planned classroom.

10. Teachers should develop the habit of turning off artificial lights when leaving a classroom, and should co-operate in turning off lights in other units of the building when they are not needed.

11. The lighting efficiency of a window or electric fixture is greatly affected by dirt and dust. The teacher should take whatever steps are necessary to prevent loss of light from this cause.

ECONOMICAL PRACTICES

The possibilities for economy in the heating and lighting of school buildings through the co-operation of the teaching staff were indicated in the preceding sections. Here the purpose is to give the prospective teacher some conception of the cost of such services to a school system and to indicate the savings that may be effected through the combined efforts of the administration, the janitorial staff, and the teaching personnel.

Using the data supplied by a school system in a community having a population of 46,000, Tables 13 and 14 show how the administration and teaching staff were able to reduce the cost of coal for the school plant and expenditures for electrical service. Over a four-year period the total outlay for coal annually de-

clined from \$6,745.66 to \$4,821.76, a reduction of approximately 28 per cent. For the same period of time, the cost of electrical service was reduced 16 per cent. The cost of coal is determined in part by weather conditions, but the greater portion of the savings shown in Table 13 was the result of a serious effort to eliminate waste. Looked at in another way, the average cost of

TABLE 13

Expenditures for Coal in a City School System Over a Four-Year Period²

<i>Building</i>	<i>First Year</i>	<i>Second Year</i>	<i>Third Year</i>	<i>Fourth Year</i>	<i>Member- ship</i>	<i>Average Cost Per Pupil</i>
1.	\$ 411.89	\$ 656.69	\$ 451.57	\$ 531.41	850	\$0.60
2.	768.65	761.44	603.51	448.46	600	1.08
3.	474.91	445.03	449.64	399.83	600	0.74
4.	895.54	748.32	541.10	629.23	650	1.08
5.	409.61	446.35	242.45	295.98	500	0.70
6.	460.96	354.52	315.23	326.27	550	0.66
7.	780.40	489.34	303.01	237.93	625	0.72
8.	300.27	309.38	200.73	207.98	325	0.78
9.	620.95	558.42	424.06	475.90	550	0.95
10.	700.58	716.60	481.65	512.06	325	1.85
11.	130.05	301.51	157.62	201.73	400	0.49
12.	441.34	233.24	152.47	165.50	550	0.45
13.	116.54	204.16	207.20	168.66	350	0.50
14.	233.97	313.69	242.06	220.82	450	0.56
Totals.	\$6,745.66	\$6,538.59	\$4,772.30	\$4,821.76	7,325	\$0.78

these combined services was reduced from \$1.72 per pupil the first year to \$1.33 per pupil by the end of the fourth year. Equivalent reductions throughout a state school system enrolling 1,000,000 children would mean a saving of \$390,000 to the taxpayers of the state.

The possibilities for savings in the cost of electrical service in a school system are further illustrated by Linn, who points out that "without question, much electricity is wasted in our schools. Motors are often kept running when they could be cut off, and

² Data furnished by H. H. Hill, formerly Superintendent of Schools, Lexington, Kentucky.

lights are left burning when not needed. If all school employees would co-operate to prevent the waste in power, a substantial saving would result.³

TABLE 14

Expenditures for Electrical Service in a City School System Over a Four-Year Period

<i>Building</i>	<i>First Year</i>	<i>Second Year</i>	<i>Third Year</i>	<i>Fourth Year</i>	<i>Member- ship</i>	<i>Average Cost Per Pupil</i>
1.	\$1,696.04	\$1,580.04	\$1,501.51	\$1,405.84	850	\$1.82
2.	939.44	928.34	829.37	790.42	600	1.45
3.	658.00	631.73	511.14	453.68	600	0.94
4.	549.28	521.90	477.53	482.88	650	0.78
5.	181.25	169.85	167.85	193.27	500	0.36
6.	197.29	212.60	238.69	190.97	550	0.38
7.	134.59	159.83	188.31	208.38	625	0.28
8.	160.84	197.34	122.19	112.98	325	0.46
9.	260.34	271.49	266.35	228.90	550	0.47
10.	673.59	626.74	560.48	559.58	325	1.86
11.	148.93	161.42	125.34	112.97	400	0.34
12.	76.80	94.55	77.18	47.96	550	0.13
13.	16.80	21.00	15.11	15.12	350	0.05
14.	140.66	217.66	144.80	114.75	450	0.34
Totals.	\$5,833.85	\$5,794.49	\$5,225.86	\$4,917.70	7,325	\$0.74

THE SCHOOL JANITOR

Janitorial service in the public schools of the United States varies from the routine and unskilled tasks of the custodian of the small school building to the highly skilled and technical services of the chief janitor-engineer of a large city system. The janitor may be illiterate and untrained, or he may be a skilled technician. In some instances the head engineer in the large school system may be a college graduate with as much formal preparation for his work as the better-qualified teachers in the system.

However, the contacts of the teacher with the janitorial staff will usually be restricted to his relationships with the janitor or

³ H. H. Linn, "Reducing Electricity Costs for Public Schools," *The American School and University, Fourth Annual Edition*, p. 173. New York: American School Publishing Corporation, 1932.

janitors in immediate charge of the building in which the teacher works. For the most part, such janitors have had little formal education and little training for their work. As described by Cubberley, the typical janitor "is just an ordinary individual, unskilled in any line of work, ignorant of sanitary standards and educational needs, sometimes grouchy, sometimes pig-headed, but usually quite human, amenable to kind treatment, and willing to do about what seems to him as fair and reasonable for the pay he receives, and not much more."⁴

The tasks of the school janitor are many and varied, and his working day is long. In most instances he is assigned more work than he can attend to properly, even when he has had considerable training and experience. In the typical school, the janitor is responsible for the operation and maintenance of the heating and ventilating system, all cleaning, sweeping, dusting, and scrubbing, and a large amount of amateur repair work. Upon the janitor and such assistants as may be furnished him falls the responsibility for maintaining all those external conditions necessary to effective learning. He must keep rooms at an even and proper temperature, sweep and scrub floors, dust walls and furniture, clean windows, keep toilet rooms in a sanitary condition, care for the lawns and shrubbery, clean blackboards and erasers, repair window shades, paint and varnish furniture and woodwork, repair plumbing and electrical fixtures, run errands, co-operate with the principal in the enforcement of rules, and assist teachers with dozens of tasks that they cannot or will not do by themselves.

As most school systems are administered, the janitor is responsible to both the principal of the building in which he works and to the superintendent of schools. His employment, pay, and the general supervision of his work are the responsibility of the superintendent or a business manager to whom the task may be delegated. The immediate direction and control of his work are the charge of the principal, who is in turn responsible to the superintendent of schools for the proper operation and maintenance.

⁴ Ellwood P. Cubberley, *The Principal and His School*, p. 210. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1923.

nance of his building. Rarely does the organization provide that the janitor be in any way responsible to the teachers for his work, although he is expected to co-operate at all times and to recognize that the school plant and its equipment are maintained and operated only to facilitate the smooth functioning of the educational program.

The teacher should realize that though the janitor usually has no professional status he cannot by any means be treated as a nonentity. Frequently, the janitor in the rural or village school is a resident of long standing in the community. He is familiar with community interests, customs and prejudices. He is a respected worker in the community and his opinion of the school or of the work of a particular teacher is likely to carry weight, in some cases almost as much as that of the principal or superintendent. If he is inclined to gossip, as janitors frequently are, he may be decidedly influential in determining the professional reputation of the teacher.

Furthermore, the manner in which the janitor is treated by the teacher will in large measure determine the extent of his co-operation. Scarcely a day passes that the teacher does not need the services of the janitor. Whether these requests for aid are cheerfully complied with, grudgingly recognized, or entirely ignored will frequently depend on the attitude of the janitor toward the individual teacher. Janitors are human and appreciate co-operation. They know that teachers are in a position to lighten their work a great deal through their influence on pupils, and they expect help of this kind from the teacher in exchange for the assistance that they are so frequently called upon to give.

THE CARE OF SCHOOL FURNITURE AND EQUIPMENT

According to available data, the public schools of the United States have a total investment in school furniture and equipment of more than one-half billion dollars.⁵ This represents about 8.5 per cent of the total value of all school property. In ten states the investment in school furniture and equipment alone

⁵ *Statistics of State School Systems, 1939-40 and 1941-42*, p. 100.

is in excess of 20 millions. In a city elementary or secondary school the cost of new furniture and equipment will usually be from 8 to 12 per cent of the cost of the building and site. This means that a school plant that is erected at a cost of \$300,000 will house from \$24,000 to \$36,000 worth of furniture and equipment, the care and maintenance of which is the responsibility of the principal, the teachers, and the pupils.

The importance of the teacher's responsibility for the care of school furniture and teaching equipment and apparatus is apparent when one considers the particular values represented. The average equipment for a typical classroom may represent an expenditure of several hundreds of dollars, if there are included only desks for 40 pupils, two ordinary bentwood chairs, one teacher's desk, one waste basket, one supply closet, one bookcase, one swivel chair, one pencil sharpener, and one plain oak table. A rather meagerly equipped laboratory with furniture of average quality only may represent an investment of \$3,500 exclusive of apparatus. Many high school laboratories contain furniture, equipment, and apparatus valued at \$6,000 to \$10,000. Physics apparatus, visual equipment such as projectors and motion picture machines, home economics equipment, tools and machines in shops, and gymnasium apparatus are all examples of expensive facilities that are easily destroyed and that depreciate in value rapidly unless given proper care.

Large amounts are expended annually to replace or to repair school equipment. Some of these replacements and repairs are made necessary by normal wear and deterioration, but a significant part of such expenditures is occasioned by carelessness or vandalism on the part of pupils and by the failure of teachers and administrators properly to discharge their responsibilities to the public.

The attitude that so frequently prevails toward public property is difficult to understand. Children and even mature students who would never think of defacing the furniture in their homes will mark or carve school furniture, carelessly knock a bottle of ink on the floor, handle expensive apparatus without proper caution, and in some instances, willfully destroy equipment. Occa-

sionally, pupils who are honest in other situations will steal tools from school shops, or equipment and supplies from a gymnasium, and apparently justify themselves on the grounds that such things belong to nobody in particular. Children, reprimanded for marking on school desks, will frequently say that they did it without thinking, and this is in many instances a true statement. The interesting aspect of the situation is that no one ever writes or carves on the piano or a desk in the home *without thinking*. Apparently, the regard for school or other public property, in many cases at least, is based on an entirely different psychology from that which governs attitudes toward personal property. Such a psychology must have its basis in adult example or it must result from the indifferent or negative attitude of those responsible for school control. Perhaps both are contributing factors.

In many cases it would appear desirable for the schools to inculcate in pupils attitudes toward public property akin to their attitudes toward personal property. Even a small child should be able to understand that the school building and its equipment are in part paid for by his parents and that they deserve from him the same care as the home and its furnishings. Furthermore, he should be able to see that large sacrifices have been made to provide him a suitable educational environment, and that he is morally obligated to co-operate in its care and maintenance. It is apparent that in addition to the practical necessity of reducing costs for replacements and repairs, an educational problem of considerable significance is involved.

In some school systems careful inventories are made of all school furniture, apparatus, and supplies, and teachers are held strictly accountable for each item assigned them. Some boards have ruled that, where there is clear evidence that loss or breakage is the result of negligence on the part of the teacher, the replacement shall be charged against the teacher's salary. In other cases there is no effort made to inventory equipment and supplies, responsibility is not clearly assigned, and each teacher is left largely to his own devices, the assumption being that he will recognize his obligations respecting the care of school property and discharge them properly.

Whatever the particular administrative procedure, the prin-

ciples that should guide the teacher are essentially the same. He should understand clearly just what furniture, equipment, apparatus, and supplies he is to be responsible for. He should devise whatever methods are necessary to prevent accidental loss or theft of apparatus and supplies. He should set an example in the care of furniture and equipment, and should obtain from pupils the highest degree of co-operation. Finally, he should recognize the educational opportunity provided, and through whatever procedures are employed endeavor to develop in the pupils with whom he works a sense of their responsibility for public as well as private property.

CLASSROOM SEATING

School seating may have an important bearing upon both the health of pupils and the effectiveness of the educational program. Particularly is this the case in the traditional elementary school, where the child is required to stay in the same seat for an extended period of time.

Improper seating produces unnecessary fatigue and, if long continued, may result in faulty posture, spinal curvature, general loss of vitality and energy, and susceptibility to ailments that might otherwise be avoided. Fatigue and discomfort on the part of the child prevent him from taking full advantage of instruction, and teaching methods and classroom activities are often determined by the type of furniture used and by its arrangement in the classroom.

Even though school furniture is usually selected and purchased by administrative authorities, there remains with the teacher much responsibility for seeing that it is most effectively used. Within the limits set by the type of furniture purchased, it is the business of the classroom teacher to see that every child is hygienically seated and that the use and arrangement of the school furniture contribute as much as possible to instructional efficiency.

Hygienic Seating

Most authorities agree that a child is properly seated when the school seat and desk make easy the maintenance of good pos-

ture throughout relatively long periods of time. In their efforts to accomplish this end, manufacturers of school furniture have placed on the market a wide variety of school seats and desks. Most of these products show the results of careful study of the hygiene of school seating and of the relation of seating to school efficiency. However, in many instances too much emphasis has been placed on relatively unimportant details, and all manufacturers have probably counted on too little responsibility on the part of school administrators and teachers. No school seating arrangement of itself can force a child to assume and maintain proper posture, and frequently extravagant features and elaborate mechanical devices result in disadvantages that are less than compensated for by the slight improvement in posture.

Although there is disagreement as to just what features are necessary to promote correct posture, many students of the problem would lend approval to the following principles and standards:

1. The height of the school seat should be such that the pupil's feet rest on the floor and all pressure just behind the knees is eliminated. The height of the seat should not exceed 25 per cent of the standing height of the child and in many cases the seat may well be an inch or more lower than this standard requires.

2. The seat should be short enough, measured from front to back, to prevent pressure against the knees when the pupil is sitting well back in the seat.

3. The seat back should be so constructed as to permit the pupil to sit against the back, with support coming just above the hips and below the shoulders. The seat back approved by most authorities has two horizontal slats, one giving support in the lumbar curve and the other just below the shoulder blades. In such a seat the buttocks fit into the space between the lower slat and the seat. The seat back should be shaped to fit the back and should be broad enough to distribute the pressure. There should be no sharp edges on slats or other parts of the seat back.

4. The space between the seat and desk must be determined by the kind of seat used and the anatomy of the particular pupil.

The desk should be close enough to the seat to permit the pupil to work freely while sitting against the back of the seat. Generally, this will mean an overlapping of seat and desk or a "minus distance" between the edge of the seat and the edge of the desk.

5. The height of the desk should be determined by the elbow height of the child when sitting. It should be possible to place the elbow on the desk for writing without lowering or raising the shoulder in any marked degree.

Responsibilities of the Teacher

Despite the fact that the teacher usually has no part in the selection of school furniture, there are at least two ways in which he may co-operate in seeing that pupils are hygienically seated. If the furniture supplied by the administration is adjustable in one or more ways, it is the business of the classroom teacher to see that the necessary adjustments are made. Almost all modern school furniture is constructed in such a way as to permit the vertical adjustment of both the seat and desk, and in some cases provision is made for adjusting the horizontal position of the desk with respect to the seat. Administrators the country over have prevailed upon boards of education to purchase adjustable school furniture, using the physical welfare of the school child as an argument for the additional expenditure usually necessary, only to find that once the furniture is installed adjustments are rarely or never made. Under such conditions it is not surprising that many school superintendents have questioned the advisability of extra expenditures for adjustable seats and desks. If they cannot count on the teacher to make effective use of such furniture, there is no argument for supplying it, particularly when an extra expenditure is involved.

Even when the furniture provided is nonadjustable, the teacher has an opportunity for improving seating conditions. Ordinarily, the room will be equipped with seats and desks of two or three sizes. These variations will permit some adaptation to individual needs if the teacher studies the situation carefully and seats each pupil according to hygienic requirements rather than in terms of some less important factor.

Seating and Instruction

Demands for greater flexibility in teaching methods and for increased emphasis on pupil activities and socialized procedures have had a decided influence on school furniture, particularly in causing movable furniture to be substituted for the traditional fixed seat and desk. However, movable furniture, like adjustable furniture, has not produced in actual practice the improved conditions that were expected. Again the difficulty has been, not with the furniture provided by seating companies, but with the use made of it by the teacher. Classroom teachers by the hundreds implore school administrators not to force them into formalized teaching procedures by equipping their classrooms with fixed seats and desks. Superintendents, anxious to do anything that will promote educational efficiency, substitute new movable furniture for old fixed seats and desks, frequently at much expense, and then to their disgust find that the very teachers who asked for movable seating arrange the furniture in the traditional manner and insist that it be left that way. Obviously, movable furniture can contribute nothing to flexibility in educational procedures unless it is moved. The obligation of the teacher is clear. Modern educational methods demand flexibility in classroom furniture, particularly in the elementary school. When movable furniture is provided, the capable teacher will capitalize on the opportunity by adjusting the seating arrangement to meet modern educational requirements.

THE USE OF INSTRUCTIONAL EQUIPMENT AND SUPPLIES

With respect to teaching equipment and supplies, the school administrator faces much the same problem that he encounters in providing adjustable and movable furniture. In answer to the demands of teachers, large sums of money are expended annually for teaching equipment and supplies which are employed so infrequently or ineffectively as to make the return on the investment seem disproportionately small. It is not unusual to see a teacher who has been supplied with the finest of charts, maps, and globes neglect splendid opportunities to use such equipment,

depending instead upon the traditional class discussion or question-and-answer method. Expensive visual equipment is many times employed for the first few weeks after its purchase for giving *shows* only slightly or not at all related to the purposes of the class, and is then gradually neglected. Eventually it is put away in a storeroom and virtually forgotten, serving the school not at all or at best on a few special occasions. Gymnasiums are frequently furnished with elaborate equipment, a substantial part of which is never used, sometimes because it has little relation to a modern program of physical education and sometimes because the teacher does not know how to use it even when it has great potential value.

Much of the waste of this nature is the fault of the classroom teacher, who is inclined to err in at least two ways. In the first place, he frequently shows little discrimination in his requests for equipment and supplies and rarely does he give proper recognition to the budgetary problems of the school board and superintendent. In the second place, he fails to make equipment and supplies pay a proper return on the investment because of infrequent or ineffective use. Teachers are apparently sincere in their requests for teaching equipment and supplies and, no doubt, fully intend to make good use of them. The difficulty is that effective use of most teaching equipment requires careful planning. Visual equipment, for example, cannot be properly employed on the spur of the moment. The proper functioning of such apparatus requires a carefully prepared course of study in which are indicated the opportunities for visual instruction. With such a course of study at hand, the teacher knows in advance when a projector and slides are to be used, arranges for them to be made ready in the classroom, and has the entire lesson planned in terms of the visual instruction. The average teacher fails to make proper use of equipment and apparatus because he is generally in the midst of a class exercise before he realizes that there is a good opportunity for their use. Under such conditions the least troublesome thing to do is to ignore the possibility and to go on with the class in the traditional manner. Carefully prepared courses of study and daily lesson planning will not only

promote the effective use of equipment, apparatus, and supplies, but will also encourage discrimination on the part of the teacher in the selection and requisition of such teaching aids.

The teacher should gauge his requests for equipment, apparatus, and supplies in terms of the financial ability of the school district and in terms of the actual requirements of his courses and teaching procedures. He should plan his work in such a way that the educational gains through the use of such materials will be commensurate with the investments made.

IMPROVING THE CLASSROOM APPEARANCE

Under ordinary conditions the classroom does not provide an environment that is either attractive or stimulating. The customary monotony of school furniture, bare walls, dusty blackboards, and the single, unbroken row of windows usually found in the modern school building lend slight encouragement either to aesthetics or to scholarship. Even the modest home is likely to make the schoolroom seem bleak and uninteresting in comparison. However, it is not impossible for a classroom to be made interesting, homelike, and attractive. Much depends on the skill and industry of the teacher. By good housekeeping and the proper use of bulletin boards, plants, flowers, maps, charts, pictures, and like materials, a schoolroom can be relieved of much of its ugliness and barrenness and at the same time be made educationally stimulating. In the elementary school in particular it is important that the teacher have an appreciation of the indirect value of an attractive schoolroom and that he strive at all times to provide such an environment.

THE EXTENT OF THE TEACHER'S RESPONSIBILITY

The question is: Is the teacher expected to assume responsibility for the care of any part of the school plant other than the room or rooms in which he teaches his classes? The answer of most administrators to this question is an emphatic affirmative. Although the chief responsibility for the care of the school plant belongs to the administration and the janitorial staff, they will find it extremely difficult to discharge this responsibility without the ready co-operation of the entire teach-

ing body. For example, what are the chances that the principal of a school can enforce a rule prohibiting marking on toilet walls or fixtures when members of his teaching staff completely ignore violations of the regulation? Similarly, an order of the principal prohibiting pupils from using the gymnasium floor unless wearing rubber-soled shoes is almost impossible to enforce unless the teachers give their attention to the problem. Dozens of similar situations could be cited as examples of the importance of teacher co-operation in the care of the school plant. The beginning teacher should recognize it as a sound principle of administration that he is responsible for the care and maintenance of school property not only in the room or rooms in which he teaches his classes but also in all other parts of the building which he may frequent.

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Practical suggestions are offered for designing classrooms that will meet individual requirements and serve educational needs for some time to come.

Chapter 17

MEETING RESPONSIBILITIES FOR SCHOOL FINANCE

THE RULES and regulations of boards of education have little, if anything, to say about the responsibilities of the teacher for school finance. They specify generally that the superintendent or the business manager of the school system shall be responsible for the determination of financial needs and the expenditure of school funds in accordance with adopted procedures. Although the relationship of the teacher to school finance may be implied in the rules and regulations of the board of education, the teacher has been excluded in practice from this field of educational administration until relatively recent times.

Boards of education and superintendents previously took the position that finance was not a concern of the instructional personnel. They regarded it as a technical field in which teachers were neither prepared by training nor qualified by experience to pass judgment on financial policies and practices. Even the teachers themselves viewed the field of finance as something abstract and unrelated to their daily program of classroom instruction. As a result, questions concerning the raising and spending of money for education were left to school boards, superintendents, special governmental agencies, and financial experts.

This point of view has been modified a good deal during the last two decades. For one thing, it has been influenced by the activities of local, state, and national teacher organizations because of the keen interest they have taken in all financial matters affecting the welfare of their members. For another, the growing acceptance of democracy in education has reduced differences in status levels among school personnel and has brought

about increasing participation on the part of teachers in the administration of the total program. The depression years of the 1930's likewise helped to change previous attitudes toward the relationship of the teacher to school finance. Faced at that time with pressures from taxpayers' leagues and special-interest groups who wished to lower taxes and reduce school costs, educators found their sources of income badly blocked or seriously cut without realizing fully what was taking place. Where the public had usually gone along with their budget recommendations, it was now critical of expenditures and insistent upon the elimination of all "fads" and "frills" from the program.

In analyzing the causes for this reversal in public attitudes, it became increasingly more apparent that the citizens and taxpayers of the community knew very little actually about what the schools were doing, what they stood for in American life, the difficulties they encountered daily, and the conditions under which the learning process took place. No systematic and continuous effort had ever been made to keep them fully informed about the schools. Under existing conditions, it was natural that economic relief should be sought in the form of lower taxes.

At the same time, it was clear that even the teachers were equally ignorant of the purposes of American education and the financial means required to support the public schools. They neither understood the nature of the financial difficulties besetting the school, nor were they able to help the public to understand them. Since that time, however, steps have been taken in many school systems to acquaint teachers with the facts about school support and to prepare beginning teachers to meet their responsibilities in the field of school finance.

THE FINANCING OF PUBLIC EDUCATION

In order to become an effective participant in the administration of school finance and to meet intelligently the public requests for basic information regarding school costs, it is necessary for the teacher to possess a sound working knowledge of tax methods, sources of educational revenues, and the financial problems involved in the support of public schools.

Local School Support

Public funds for school support are derived from local, county, state, and federal sources. According to the Biennial Survey of Education, 62.2 per cent of the money used to finance public education in 1941-42 came from local sources.¹ Most of this money was raised through taxes levied on property located in local districts. Though this percentage is high, comparative data over a period of years reveal a steady decline in the percentage contribution of local districts to the total cost of public education. The decline has taken place because of lower property values and the inability of owners to meet tax obligations, especially during the depression years when income from property taxes dropped so low that schools were forced to close in many communities. This general breakdown in property taxes forces state governments to supply a larger share of funds for the support of schools. But, despite the fact that the states have assumed increasingly a larger share of school support, the general property tax still carries more than three fifths of the costs for elementary and secondary education in this country.

In addition to the tax that property carries for school support, it is also called upon to produce income for the financing of city and county governments. Each of these units imposes a separate property tax. The taxpayer, however, receives a bill for a single sum, the tax statement indicating how much of this sum is allocated to each taxing body. He may likewise be asked to pay special tax assessments to cover the cost of public improvements such as new water mains, better sewage disposal facilities, and highway construction. Special assessments of this kind are generally spread on the tax rolls over a period of ten to twenty years.

The method by which the property tax is levied can be determined rather quickly by the teacher. He will usually find that each piece of real property in the community is assigned a *true value* by the assessor, i.e., the value which the property would

¹ *Statistical Summary of Education, 1941-42*, p. 34. Biennial Survey of Education, Vol. II, Chap. II. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1944.

have if it was sold on the open market. Using this figure as a guide, the assessor then places a valuation on the property for tax purposes. This is known as the *assessed value* of the property. Since the assessed value is an arbitrary one that is subject to local influence, it varies a good deal from one community to another. It may be no more than a fifth of the true value in Centerville and approximately equal to the true value of property in Paxtang. Once the assessed value has been fixed for a particular fiscal year, each local taxing body determines how many mills must be levied against the property in order to raise the sum of money needed for financing its services. A mill is worth one tenth of a cent, so that a ten-mill tax, for example, on a property assessed at \$5,000 would yield a return of \$50. It should be recognized, however, that a high rate of tax, expressed as a number of mills, does not necessarily mean that property is carrying a heavy burden. If assessed valuations are low, the yield from a tax of several mills may be less than the return from a lower rate in a community where assessed valuations are close to the true valuations of properties.

As was pointed out above, each taxing body fixes its own rate of taxes. Although this is generally true, school boards vary in their authority to levy taxes. The majority of boards throughout the country are limited to a formal recommendation regarding taxes. The power to appropriate is vested in the people, a municipal council, or the state government. Practice in common-school, graded, and township districts favors popular approval of budgetary needs and tax rates at an annual public meeting. In larger-sized municipalities, the city council decides upon the amount of money that the school district shall receive. In a few cases the state is the final authority in appropriating local district funds.

A modification of these procedures is practiced in a number of communities where the school board has legal authority to fix tax rates, subject to review by municipal, county, or regional allocation boards. These boards are frequently authorized by law to pass upon the budgets for each taxing unit, but they are lacking in power to decide upon separate items within a budget. On

the other hand, boards of education in many school districts are fiscally independent. They have the right to levy taxes for current expenses, within statutory limits, and their actions are not subject to review by any other governmental division.

In the case of new buildings and extensions to the school plant, all boards of education must submit their programs to the people of the district for approval. Some exceptions to this rule on capital outlay are found in certain states where boards may borrow money or float bonds for new buildings, provided the amount involved does not exceed a fixed percentage of the assessed valuation of property within the district. In other instances, the municipal council has authority to grant borrowing power to the school district for building improvements without presenting the matter to the people of the community.

County School Funds

The county unit plays a minor role in the support of education. During the school year 1941-42, counties provided less than 10 per cent of the total income for schools.² This contribution was concentrated in 19 states; the county in the remaining 29 states did not raise any funds for school support. In states where the county aids in the financing of education, some counties levy a property tax and apportion a part of it to the schools on the basis of either the number of pupils in average daily attendance, the number of teachers employed, or both.

State Aid

Increased costs of public education, together with the inability of local districts to raise additional revenues, has placed strong pressure on state governments to assume a larger share in the financial support of schools. In general, states have yielded to this pressure, but the extent to which they have gone in underwriting the costs of education varies sharply. In 1939-40, more than 50 per cent of the revenue receipts for public education in

² *Statistics of State School Systems, 1939-40 and 1941-42*, p. 24. Biennial Surveys of Education, Vol. II, Chap. III. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1944.

nine states came from state sources, whereas less than 10 per cent of such funds came from state sources in ten other states. For the country as a whole, the state share in school support rose from 16.9 per cent in 1929-30 to 31.5 per cent in 1941-42. Expressed in millions of dollars, the state contribution during this period increased from approximately 354 to 760 millions annually.³ These figures clearly indicate the significant part being taken by the state in support of the public schools.

In providing this aid to local school districts, it is necessary for the state to tap a number of revenue-producing sources. One of the earliest sources of school aid placed at the disposal of the state is known as the *permanent school fund*. Started at a time when this nation was undergoing a rapid expansion, the permanent school fund had its origin in federal grants of land which were set aside specifically for school purposes. These grants were supplemented later by gifts of saline and swamp lands, tax receipts from the sale of public lands, surplus revenue, and royalties from mineral and timber holdings. The accumulation of these grants constituted a permanent fund upon which states drew heavily at one time for the support of their school systems. In Nebraska, Oregon, South Dakota, and Wyoming this fund is still the main source of school support, and in nine other states it comprises one fourth or more of the state school revenues. In the remaining 35 states, however, less than one tenth of the total school revenues come from permanent funds.⁴

State property taxes earmarked for schools are another source of revenue in 18 states. They amounted to 7.8 per cent of the school funds in these states during the year 1939-40.⁵ Ten states share in the proceeds from taxes on personal and corporate net incomes. The returns from this tax come to less than 10 per cent of the gross school revenues, though they can become substantially higher where the proceeds are on a percentage basis instead of a straight allotment basis; any rise in personal and

³ *Ibid.*, pp. 22-23.

⁴ *State School Finance Systems*, p. 164. Research Bulletin, Volume XX, November, 1942. Washington: Research Division, National Education Association.

⁵ *State School Finance Systems*, p. 160.

corporate incomes produces a corresponding rise in tax revenues for schools. Slightly more than 4 per cent of the state school revenues come from sales and use taxes in 18 states. In ten of these states, the sales tax is earmarked specifically for the public schools.⁶ Heavy dependence is placed upon legislature appropriations from the general funds of the state to aid local schools. Though somewhat at variance with the previous figures cited from the Biennial Surveys of Education, the Research Division of the National Education Association reports that:

While only two states (Maryland and Mississippi) depend exclusively upon legislative appropriations for their state school funds, fourteen states use this means to provide more than 90 per cent of their aid to the schools. . . . In addition to the fourteen states . . . nine other states rely upon general fund appropriations for more than half of their state school revenues.⁷

Advocates of school aid from the general funds of the state maintain correctly that the advantage of appropriating money in this way lies in the flexibility of the system. The amount to be appropriated can be adjusted by the legislature annually or biennially to meet current needs and conditions.

Upon a comparatively less important scale, revenues are diverted to schools from such other sources as inheritance, estate, and gift taxes; alcohol beverage taxes; tobacco taxes; motor vehicle and motor fuel taxes; severance taxes; chainstore taxes; miscellaneous license taxes; and corporation taxes.

Along with the problem of raising sufficient funds for school support, the state faces a critical question of how these funds should be distributed to local districts. It is one thing merely to give financial aid and another to use such aid for stimulating local initiative toward the improvement of existing facilities and the equalizing of educational costs. One of the earliest practices in distributing state aid was that of apportioning so much money for every school-age child resident in the local district. Known

⁶ *Ibid.*, pp. 160-163.

⁷ *Ibid.*

as the *school-census* basis for distributing funds, it is still used in approximately one half of the states. Since this basis of distribution had only a slight influence upon the need for increasing school attendance, it was abandoned by several states in favor of average daily attendance. Upon this basis, efforts were made by local authorities to enforce attendance laws because their share of the state funds increased or decreased with the number of children who were in average attendance throughout the school year. Special inducements were offered in some states for establishing secondary schools by increasing the amount of aid per pupil in average daily attendance at high school. At the present time, average daily attendance is used as a sole or partial basis for distributing general aid funds in about ten states. In addition, three states use the total number of days of attendance by all pupils as the basis for state aid to local school districts.⁸ Both methods have a tendency to encourage local school officials to maintain a longer school year and to reduce the number of interruptions caused by vacations and holidays.

On the theory that instructional costs are a better index of financial need than the number of children to be educated, five states use the number of teachers employed or the number of teaching positions to be filled in the district as a basis for distributing state aid, and one state bases its allotments on the salaries paid to teachers in the local school system. Six other states follow the plan of paying so much money for each instructional unit.⁹ An instructional unit is defined differently in the statutes of each state. In general, it is a fixed ratio of so many pupils to each teacher either on the basis of average daily attendance or average daily membership, though other factors may be taken into consideration in the formula used for distributing funds. Besides these methods of apportionment, the law in four states sets up a minimum or foundation program which the schools must offer. Part of the cost of these minimum programs is then paid out of general state funds. In Delaware and North Caro-

⁸ *State School Finance Systems*, pp. 165-166.

⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 167.

lina the state assumes responsibility for the current expenses of the complete school program or a specified part of it.

In view of the fact that school districts, like people, vary a great deal in their financial ability, some need more help from the state than others. Recognizing that all children should enjoy equal educational opportunities and that financially weak districts should not be required to carry unduly heavy burdens in trying to provide a desirable educational program, 38 states distribute their aid in accordance with some type of equalization plan.¹⁰ Although the plans of various states to equalize the school support burden among local districts are different, the over-all pattern is very much the same. First, the state outlines a minimum program and determines the cost of operating it. After the cost has been determined, the next step is that of computing the tax rate needed on a state-wide basis to support the program. With a knowledge of the tax rate, it is possible to tell how much money a local district can raise for its schools. If the taxable wealth of the district is low and the tax returns are less than the amount needed to finance the minimum program, the state makes up the balance. In practice, the cost of the minimum program may be defined in terms of a fixed amount of money per teacher, census child, instructional unit, pupil enrolled, or pupil attending. Other factors, such as the length of the school term, size of population, or the mandated salaries of teachers on a prescribed state schedule, may likewise be taken into account in granting subsidies.

Nearly all states in the union provide additional aid for one or more special school purposes. Among the purposes for which this aid is given are (1) vocational education, (2) transportation of pupils who live beyond a reasonable walking distance from the school, (3) tuition for nonresident pupils who come from districts that do not maintain elementary schools, secondary schools, or either, (4) special classes for the education of children who are mentally or physically handicapped, (5) supervision of instruction in elementary schools, (6) the purchase of

¹⁰ *Ibid.*, pp. 167-169.

free textbooks, (7) health examinations of school children, and (8) the construction of school buildings. Provisions for special aid are made, as a rule, in the formula or plan of distributing state school subsidies.

Federal Participation

Contributions from the federal government toward the cost of public education in 1941-42 amounted to only 1.4 per cent. This represents, however, an increase of 1 per cent over revenue receipts for schools from federal sources in 1929-30.¹¹ Most of the money appropriated by Congress for public education is used to support programs in trades and industries, home economics, agriculture, and distributive education within the provisions of the Smith-Hughes and George-Deen Acts.

Some idea of the nature and distribution of federal funds under these acts may be gained from the following report:

The Smith-Hughes Act provides for continuing or permanent appropriations. The amount available for annual allotment to the 48 States on the basis of population under this act is \$7,000,000 divided and allotted as follows: \$3,000,000 for salaries of teachers, supervisors, and directors of agricultural subjects allotted to the States in the proportion which the rural population of each is to the total rural population in the United States, not including outlying possessions, according to the last preceding United States census; \$3,000,000 for salaries of teachers of trade, home economics, and industrial subjects allotted to the States in the proportion which the urban population of each is to the total urban population in the United States; and \$1,000,000 for cooperation with the States in the training of teachers allotted to the States in the proportion which the population of each is to the total population of the United States. The act also provides that the additional sums of \$27,000, \$50,000, and \$90,000 may be used each year to guarantee a minimum allotment of \$100,000 to each State for each of these three purposes, respectively.

The George-Deen Act provides that an annual appropriation

¹¹ *Statistics of State School Systems, 1939-40 and 1941-42*, p. 22.

of \$14,200,000 may be made for distribution to the States and Territories, according to certain population figures for five specific education purposes and, in addition, an appropriation of \$283,000 to guarantee certain minimum amounts for all States and Territories. By the terms of the act, the \$14,200,000 shall be apportioned to the States and Territories as follows: \$4,000,000 for instruction in agricultural subjects in the proportion that the farm population of each State or Territory is to the total farm population of the nation; \$4,000,000 for instruction in home economics subjects, in the proportion that the rural population of each is to the total rural population; \$4,000,000 for instruction in trade and industrial subjects, in the proportion that the nonfarm population of each is to the total nonfarm population; and \$1,200,000 for instruction and teacher training in distributive subjects and \$1,000,000 for teacher training in agriculture, home economics, and trade and industrial subjects, in the proportion that the total population of each State and Territory is to the total population of the Nation.¹²

A strong case is being made today for extending federal aid to other subjects and phases of public education. Proponents of increased federal support want outright grants to states in proportion to their need for equalizing educational opportunities. Some of the leading arguments on the subject of increased federal aid were presented in a previous chapter.¹³ It would be advisable to review those arguments before considering the following section on current financial problems.

CURRENT FINANCIAL PROBLEMS

Every teacher should understand not only how education is financed in this country but also the difficulties experienced by local communities and states in trying to provide adequate school programs. However remote some of the financial problems may seem to the work of the teacher, nevertheless each bears a relationship which influences his activities, both personally and pro-

¹² Timon Covert, *Federal Government Funds for Education 1940-14 and 1941-42*, pp. 11, 16. U. S. Office of Education Leaflet No. 70. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1944.

¹³ Chapter 2.

professionally, in many ways. Furthermore, without this knowledge, the teacher cannot render effective service in seeking the solution to the present financial problems of public education.

Differences in Local Support

Studies in the comparative expenditures of local school districts for the support of elementary and secondary education disclose wide variations. They are due generally to differences in the capacity of districts to support education, the ratio of assessed to true valuations of personal and real property for tax purposes, and the size of the districts themselves. In a poor district, the rate of taxation on property must be high in order to support even a mediocre program. By contrast, a low tax rate in a wealthy district will yield the money that is needed to provide a good program. Accordingly, children in one district are limited in available opportunities for education, whereas those in another district have every opportunity that they need—increased amounts of money provide better buildings, better-trained teachers, well-equipped classrooms, richer learning experiences, adequate instructional supplies, and many other benefits.

Even in a wealthy state like New York significant variations are found among local districts in their annual expenditures for the operation of schools. The average expenditures in all classifications of districts for each elementary school child ranged from slightly less than \$60 to approximately \$250, with an average for the entire state of about \$115. The cost per pupil in grades above the sixth amounted to nearly one-third more, exclusive of outlay for capital expenditures, debt service, and transportation.¹⁴ In a study by the School Commission of Pennsylvania of districts that received special aid from the Commonwealth, it was reported that the assessed valuation per teacher employed by these districts in 1943-44 ranged from \$7,700 to \$143,000. About 17 per cent of the districts had assessed valuations per teacher of less than \$20,000 and 86 per cent had as-

¹⁴ *What Education Our Money Buys*, p. 31. Albany: Educational Conference Board of New York State, 1945.

sessed valuations per teacher of less than \$70,000.¹⁵ In a preceding report of the School Commission it was shown that the current expense cost per elementary child in these districts ranged from \$41.07 to \$125.67, with a median of \$72.50. At the secondary school level, the lowest expenditure per pupil amounted to \$58.33 and the highest to \$191.92. The median was \$107.50.¹⁶ Similar ranges in educational costs exist in the majority of states, emphasizing further the variations in local ability to support schools and the inequalities in educational opportunities that result.

A second factor responsible for this condition is the gap between the assessed and true valuations of properties for tax purposes. A study of this factor was undertaken by the Michigan Public Education Study Commission which reported that:

The current range of assessed to sales value of real property is from 40 per cent in Houghton County to 82 per cent in Clinton County, with a median for the state as a whole of 62 per cent. If the 1942 state equalized valuation is computed at 75 per cent of the sales value, the grand total would be \$7,581,895,000 or \$958,317,000 higher than the current local assessed valuation. This difference of nearly one billion dollars may be considered as the current undervaluation of real and personal property for local taxation purposes. Even this valuation is considered very conservative by some tax specialists who believe that the current state equalized valuation is approximately nine billions.¹⁷

A similar finding was made by the School Commission in Pennsylvania, which concluded that more money could be raised in so-called *distressed districts* if they were willing to bring as-

¹⁵ *School Districts on Relief*, p. 28. Report II of the School Commission to the General Assembly of the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania. Harrisburg: The School Commission, 1945.

¹⁶ *The Distribution of State School Subsidies*, p. 31. Report I of the School Commission to the General Assembly of the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania. Harrisburg: The School Commission, 1945.

¹⁷ *The Improvement of Public Education in Michigan*, p. 196. The Report of the Michigan Public Education Study Commission. Lansing: The Commission, 1944.

essed valuations in line with true valuations of property or increase the tax rate on existing assessment values.¹⁸ It should be remembered, however, that in many districts the ratio of assessed to true valuations is high and that these districts have reached the limits of their capacities to support schools.

Frequently, the size of the district and the number of children to be educated accounts for significant variations in costs. The Michigan Public Education Study Commission found that "the range in cost of instruction in seven primary districts with six or less pupils is from \$125 to \$256 with a median cost of \$175. The range of per capita expense in primary school districts having between seven and 15 children in membership ranges from \$55 to \$414 although the median is only \$100. The range in operating expense for the 278 districts reporting between 16 and 25 children in membership is from \$35 to \$132 or a medium of \$70."¹⁹ It is evident from these data that educational costs in small districts having few children run very high. Moreover, educational opportunities in such districts are meager when they are compared with those provided in larger communities at less expense. Although the size of a district may not always be a significant factor in producing variations in expenditures among the local districts of a state, it cannot be overlooked in this respect.

Inequalities Among States

Students of educational finance have been aware for many years of the striking inequalities in educational opportunities found among local school districts. They have advocated consistently the assumption of greater financial responsibility by the state as a means for correcting this condition. Some have recommended that the state contribute at least 30 per cent of the total cost; others have held that 50 per cent should be the minimum amount. In actual practice, several states carry more than 50 per cent of the cost, but the majority are below this figure. The percentage contribution of states in aid of local districts may

¹⁸ *School Districts on Relief*, pp. 27-30.

¹⁹ *The Improvement of Public Education in Michigan*, p. 182.

be seen in Table 15. This table represents a random sampling of states in the rank order of their percentage contributions to the costs of education.

TABLE 15

Percentage of Receipts from Taxation and Appropriation
from State, County, and Local Sources, 1939-40²⁰

<i>States</i>	<i>Sources and Per Cent</i>		
	<i>State</i>	<i>County</i>	<i>Local</i>
New Mexico.....	69.3	13.2	17.5
Georgia.....	58.2	16.6	25.2
Florida.....	51.8	17.0	31.2
Arkansas.....	46.0	3.8	50.2
Texas.....	41.3	0	58.7
Mississippi.....	38.6	20.0	41.4
Minnesota.....	35.2	1.6	63.2
New York.....	33.9	0	66.1
Arizona.....	21.2	38.2	40.6
Wisconsin.....	18.7	9.6	71.7
North Dakota.....	14.4	8.7	76.9
Rhode Island.....	10.7	0	89.3
Connecticut.....	8.6	0	91.2
Wyoming.....	5.9	27.6	66.5
New Hampshire.....	5.5	0	94.5
Oregon.....	.4	25.9	73.7
United States.....	30.6	6.8	62.6

The table likewise reveals differences in the extent to which states are either able or willing to go in providing subsidies for local school programs. The state contribution, in many instances, is just large enough to enable the local district to meet the minimum requirements respecting teachers' salaries, length of the school term, transportation, and related items. As a result, the same pattern of inequalities in educational opportunities existing in local districts is found among the different states of the nation. These inequalities are reflected in the amounts of money spent per pupil, the annual salaries paid to teachers, the length of the school year, the per-pupil value of school property, and the ratio of high school enrollments to the number of persons of high school age.

²⁰ Adapted from *Statistics of State School Systems, 1939-40 and 1941-42*, p. 23.

Mississippi, for example, spent \$31.52 per pupil in average daily attendance during the school year, 1941-42.²¹ This figure does not include the amount spent for interest per pupil on bonded indebtedness. This was less than one-fifth the amount spent by New York, where current expenditures per pupil in average daily attendance totaled \$168.07; it was also less than one third of the sum spent per pupil for the nation as a whole. A careful study of Table 16 will show further that nine states spent less than \$60 per pupil, 18 states between \$60 and \$100, and 21 more than \$100 for every child in average daily attendance.

Since salaries paid to teachers constitute the largest single item

TABLE 16

Current Expense (excluding interest) Per Pupil in Average Daily Attendance by States, 1941-42²²

State	Amount	State	Amount
Alabama.....	\$ 39.75	Nebraska.....	\$ 85.12
Arizona.....	104.66	Nevada.....	134.37
Arkansas.....	38.59	New Hampshire.....	100.70
California.....	166.92	New Jersey.....	158.08
Colorado.....	102.38	New Mexico.....	83.43
Connecticut.....	124.88	New York.....	168.07
Delaware.....	113.80	North Carolina.....	45.11
Florida.....	68.08	North Dakota.....	79.65
Georgia.....	44.57	Ohio.....	106.13
Idaho.....	86.72	Oklahoma.....	72.83
Illinois.....	128.99	Oregon.....	106.97
Indiana.....	95.97	Pennsylvania.....	106.90
Iowa.....	95.40	Rhode Island.....	122.99
Kansas.....	86.27	South Carolina.....	45.51
Kentucky.....	51.38	South Dakota.....	96.33
Louisiana.....	65.93	Tennessee.....	50.44
Maine.....	69.72	Texas.....	78.24
Maryland.....	89.92	Utah.....	84.76
Massachusetts.....	130.73	Vermont.....	93.84
Michigan.....	101.91	Virginia.....	55.83
Minnesota.....	108.26	Washington.....	127.70
Mississippi.....	31.52	West Virginia.....	72.63
Missouri.....	86.79	Wisconsin.....	109.69
Montana.....	125.59	Wyoming.....	120.29

²¹ Adapted from *Statistics of State School Systems, 1939-40 and 1941-42*, p. 28.

²² *Ibid.*

of current expense, it is not surprising to find variations in the range of average annual salaries paid comparable to the differences in total current expense per pupil. According to the Biennial Survey of Education for the year 1941-42, state averages for supervisors, principals, and teachers ranged from \$517 in Mississippi to \$2,618 in New York with the annual average for the country at \$1,507.²³ Ten states paid salaries of less than \$1,000 during the year under consideration, twenty-two states averaged between \$1,000 and \$1,500, twelve states between \$1,500 and \$2,000, and only three averaged \$2,000 or better.²⁴ Most of the states that paid the lowest average annual salaries are in large part rural. In contrast, those paying the highest salaries have important urban and industrial sections. Such difference can only mean that many children are being denied the instructional services of adequately trained and properly qualified teachers. This condition will continue until salaries are raised to a level that will hold and attract competent teachers. Even with the increase in salaries since the close of the war, fewer teachers than ever are in training and many have left the profession for other forms of employment. In consequence, inequalities in educational opportunities have increased.

In addition to having good teachers, children must be housed satisfactorily in school buildings and provided with the supplies and equipment that are essential to sound instruction. Although the value of school property is not an accurate index of educational opportunity, it does reveal wide differences between facilities available for instructional purposes in the various states. A Research Bulletin of the National Education Association points out that the value of elementary and secondary school property in 1939-40 per pupil enrolled "ranged from \$80 in Tennessee to \$526 in New York."²⁵ It is apparent that large sums of money will have to be spent on buildings and equipment in the less wealthy states before present differences in opportunities for learning can be reduced.

²³ *Ibid.*, p. 16.

²⁴ Data for one state omitted.

²⁵ *Federal Aid for Education*, p. 128. Research Bulletin, Vol. XX, September, 1942. Washington: Research Division, National Education Association.

The average length of the school year is another measure of difference. Significant variations in the length of the school year are found among states, but the more fundamental difference is found among urban and rural areas within the several states. In Mississippi again, the average length of the school term amounted to 139 days in rural areas as against an average of 167 for the nation. However, the average for urban areas in that state came to 178, or only three days below the national average for urban centers. At the other end of the distribution, Michigan had the longest school term in rural areas with 179 days, and Maryland in urban areas with 190 days.²⁶ In other words, educational opportunity in this instance depends more upon whether a child lives in a rural or an urban area.

A final means for comparing the extent to which states provide equality of educational opportunity is the ratio of high school enrollments to the number of persons of high school age. It is assumed that, as an ideal of American education, every boy and girl who is mentally and physically able should receive the benefits of a secondary education. On this point the Research Division of the National Education Association reports that "in 1939-40 the number of children enrolled in high schools for each 1,000 who were fourteen to seventeen years old ranged from 392 in Mississippi to 952 in Washington. Seven states had fewer than 500 pupils in high schools for each 1,000 of high school age, while twelve states had more than 800 enrolled for each 1,000 in this age group; ten of the twelve highest states are in the Northwest or the Far West."²⁷

Possible Solutions

It may be concluded from the preceding discussion that existing differences in educational opportunities are due basically to economic causes. Many states and local districts do not have the taxable wealth that is needed for producing revenues to build good school plants, hire competent teachers, and provide adequate instructional facilities. Without financial aid, existing

²⁶ *Statistics of State School Systems, 1939-40 and 1941-42*, pp. 126-27.

²⁷ *Federal Aid for Education*, p. 128.

conditions within these states and districts will be continued. In some instances, present inequalities could be reduced by increasing taxes without imposing a hardship on the states and districts involved. However, any proposal to levy additional taxes or to change the tax structure is usually met by vigorous opposition from certain propertied classes and business interests who are unsympathetic to the idea of taxing themselves further for the support of public education.

To find a satisfactory solution for the problem of educational inequality in this country is a difficult one. The only feasible answer at the present time appears to be appropriations from the federal government. On this point, numerous bills have been introduced into Congress outlining proposals for federal aid to the less fortunate states. To date, none of these proposals have succeeded in gaining general support though, in the opinion of many observers, the chances are better now than ever before. Opposition to federal aid for public education has come from the Congressional representatives of the wealthy states. They reflect the unwillingness of these states to pay additional taxes for the benefit of the poorer states. Opposition has likewise come from the public at large which views with suspicion any proposal to increase further the powers of the federal government. This is especially true with regard to public education, since this function has been traditionally a matter of state and local concern. It is believed that the use of federal money for schools would carry with it the right of federal supervision, thereby destroying local initiative and pride in promoting public education. This reaction, in part, may be ascribed to local experience with vocational supervisors working with programs under the Smith-Hughes and George-Deen Acts. Representing state boards and offices of vocational education, whose policies and programs are influenced by the federal government, these supervisors have imposed such rigid regulations on local schools relative to physical arrangements, salaries of vocational teachers, courses of study, and instructional materials that many administrators have been forced to accept the vocational program as an independent unit of the local school system.

Discounting this experience for the moment, it is entirely possible to establish workable bases for distributing federal aid in such a manner as not to encroach upon the rights of states and local communities in the operation of their schools. Standards could be set up by the federal government just as they are set up by the state government in granting aid to local districts for building construction. The state insists upon checking local construction plans against standards of safety, ventilation, heating, lighting, and equipment, but leaves to the local district full responsibility for working out the details.

Regardless of the means adopted for regulating the distribution of federal subsidies, the problem of eliminating existing inequalities in educational opportunities remains unsolved. Millions of children are being denied the right to a sound education under the leadership of thoroughly trained teachers. Some action must be taken to change this condition. The change will only come after a supporting base of public opinion has been developed in favor of federal aid along lines that are acceptable to states and local communities. In this, the teacher can assist a good deal by keeping the facts before the public and urging that various forms of constructive action be taken by individuals and organized groups within the community.

THE TEACHER AND THE SCHOOL BUDGET

The finance problem must be faced realistically in the preparation of the annual school budget. The budget is a formal statement of anticipated income and essential expenditures for the coming fiscal year. Both the expected income and the required expenditures should balance each other if the school system is to operate without a deficit. Once the budget has been accepted by the board of education, it serves as a framework for the financial management of the community educational enterprise.

The extent to which the teacher takes a part in preparing, presenting, and administering the budget differs in each school system. In some, the teacher is given an active role in budgetary matters; in others, the teacher has very little to say about the

budget. In either case, it is highly important that the teacher be fully informed about the details of the budget and the efficiency with which it is administered. Being a representative of the school system who must answer questions in the community concerning school costs, and having both a personal and professional interest in the financial welfare of the schools, the teacher will find it imperative to know a great deal about the budget.

Preparation

The preparation of the budget starts with a determination of the educational needs of the school system. Frequently, these needs are determined on an individual building basis by each principal, either with or without the assistance of teachers. The various estimates of the building principals are then summarized by the superintendent or his assistant and incorporated into the budget statement. Another method commonly followed is that of having the budget prepared by the superintendent from central office records. His estimates are based upon known needs in relation to previous expenditures for salaries, supplies, equipment, maintenance, and the like. A more democratic method, however, than either of the preceding two is that of requesting all personnel to prepare detailed statements showing what is desirable, necessary, and absolutely essential for the efficient performance of their duties. Their statements are then checked against central office estimates and differences that appear may be straightened out through conferences. If funds are not available for granting desirable requests, provision can be made at least for those which are either necessary or absolutely essential.

Organization

The budget is generally organized into a systematic statement showing where the money to support the local educational program will come from and how it will be spent. This may be seen in Figure 38. The two pie graphs shown there represent the percentage distribution of the school-tax dollar in the city of Los Angeles. It will be noted that the principal sources of income are from local tax levies and state subsidies. The remain-

ing sources represent surplus from the preceding annual income, tax payments in arrears, and a small miscellaneous category, which probably covers tuition fees, interest on deposits, sales of used supplies and equipment, and the like.

It should also be noted that expenditures are distributed within clearly designated classifications, the largest cost being for *instruction*. Within the instructional classification are included the salaries of teachers; contributions from school district funds to local or state retirement systems; expenses for textbooks and instructional supplies; the costs of administration and supervision

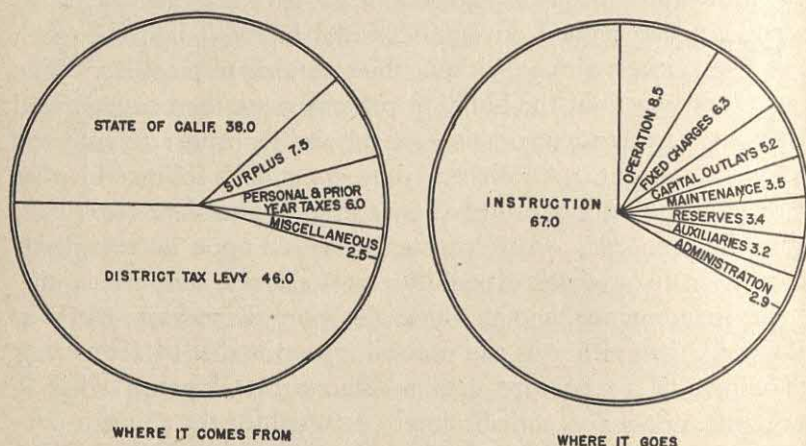


FIGURE 38. Percentage Distribution of the School-Tax Dollar, Los Angeles City School Districts, 1941-42.

within each school building; and payments for the support of programs in adult education. In descending order, the graph explains how much of the tax dollar goes for operation of the school plant, fixed charges, capital outlay, maintenance of the school plant, reserves, auxiliary services, and administration.

Each of these classifications should be understood by the teacher in order to interpret the school budget. *Operation of the school plant* includes the cost of services needed for heating, ventilating, and cleaning school buildings and grounds. *Fixed charges* take into consideration the items of expenditure that are more or less recurrent, such as fire insurance premiums, liability

insurance, workmen's compensation insurance premiums, and school rentals. Contributions to employees' local or state retirement systems are sometimes included in this classification. *Capital outlay* refers to the cost of all permanent additions to existing buildings, equipment, and land. It differs from current expenditures in that it is usually written off over a period of years, whereas current expenditures are paid for in a single fiscal year. *Maintenance of the school plant* consists of the physical upkeep of all school property by means of repair and the replace-

ESTIMATED RECEIPTS	ESTIMATED EXPENDITURES
1947 Assessment (11¾ mills)..... \$31,530,236	Instruction..... \$25,321,415
Less 2.8% for Non-Collection..... 882,846	Administration..... 1,156,892
	Co-ordinate Activities and Auxiliary Agencies 1,360,279
\$30,647,390	Operation of School
Less Discounts over Penalties..... 166,000	Plant..... 4,053,816
	Maintenance..... 1,193,000
\$30,481,390	Fixed Charges..... 870,233
Delinquent Taxes and Penalties..... 1,750,000	Warehouse Stock..... 500,000
State Appropriation.... 5,555,050	Debt Service..... 3,665,805
Miscellaneous Receipts.. 335,000	
Total..... \$38,121,440	Total..... \$38,121,440

FIGURE 39. Budget Statement for the Philadelphia Public Schools, 1947.

ment of furniture and equipment. *Reserves* take into account a special contingency fund for meeting emergency needs and a cash reserve required in this particular budget by law for financing the district's expenditures before tax receipts and state subsidies are received. *Auxiliary services*, which are also known as *co-ordinate activities*, provide for the services of doctors, dentists, nurses, attendance investigation, transportation, and school playgrounds. *Administration* or *general control* is a budgetary charge against the salaries and expenses of all general administrative and staff personnel as well as the maintenance of the central

offices of the board of education and such legal charges as arise from school elections, civil service, and tax collections. The last classification found in the typical school budget is *debt service*. This charge represents payments on the principal and interest arising from the sale of bonds and other long-term loans.

A complete budget statement expressed in terms of dollars and cents may be seen in Figure 39. This budget contains a detailed list of the sources of income and classification of recommended expenditures. This classification follows standard terminology, with the exception of warehouse stock.

Presentation

After school officials have completed their preparation of the budget, it is submitted for study and consideration to the board of education or some other governmental agency, such as the city council, which is authorized by law to approve, modify, or reject it. Although the teacher has little to do with this phase of the budget, the tendency is growing to have representatives of teachers' organizations appear before the group authorized to pass on the budget and to express their reactions to the entire budget or to certain aspects of it.

Administration

The administration of the budget is a responsibility of the board of education and the superintendent of schools. Even though the teacher does not appear to have a direct relationship with the execution of the budget, he can render a real service to the community by following monthly the statements of income and expenditures, noting particularly the amount of money used for items within the various budgetary classifications. He can also exercise an alertness with reference to the piling up of deficits and the departures that are made from the original estimates. For example, if the percentage of expenditures begins to increase disproportionally for administration or plant maintenance, it means that ultimately either a corresponding reduction must be made in some other category—usually instruction—or resort must be made to deficiency financing. Both practices tend to weaken the schools and undermine public confidence in their ad-

ministration. Moreover, when the teacher is alert and sensitive to the administrative management of the budget, there is less likelihood of school officials' misappropriating funds or manipulating accounts for political or personal gain.

The teacher has every right, both as a taxpayer and a member of a professional group, to express publicly his reactions to the financial problems of the school system. It is desirable for teachers to be represented at all open hearings on the school budget and to lay before the school board accurate facts concerning the conditions and financial needs of the system. Board members and school officials frequently lose sight of the day-by-day realities of classroom instruction. Many lack a practical understanding of the difficulties experienced in handling large classes, working with inadequate supplies and equipment, teaching antiquated courses of study, and carrying several extra duties beyond the regular teaching load. Unless such facts are brought objectively to their attention and their relationship to the welfare of children pointed out, provision will not be made in the budget for their improvement.

Charges of selfishness are often hurled at teachers when they campaign for budget increases largely because the impression is created that salary increases are the sole motive for their actions. Teachers are entitled to better salaries than they are receiving in the majority of communities but, as a rule, the public is not sympathetic to the personal plight of the teacher. If, however, it can be clearly demonstrated that the economic and social welfare of the teacher is inextricably bound with the instruction of children, the public will generally respond in a favorable manner. Teachers should follow closely the administration of the budget, studying daily its effect upon the instructional program. The evidence they collect can be used for educating school officials and taxpayers to the need for increasing income to support the changes they propose.

THE MANAGEMENT OF STUDENT FUNDS

Teachers have a responsibility at all levels of the school system for the management of student funds. The money that comes into their custody may arise from sales of milk, candy, tickets,

and activity cards. It may come from deposits to pupil savings accounts where efforts are made to encourage thrift, from the collection of class dues and expenses connected with graduation, from donations received for various campaigns and drives conducted in the school and community, and from a variety of other activities for which the teacher is asked to serve as a sponsor. Sometimes the teacher delegates responsibility for handling these funds to pupils; at other times they are handled by the teacher himself. In either case, the teacher must make a complete and accurate accounting of the funds.

The Lunchroom and Student Store

In large school systems the lunchroom service is generally centralized in a professional manager or dietitian who hires, with the approval of the superintendent and board of education, the personnel needed to prepare and serve food in all schools throughout the system. In many medium and most small-sized communities, on the other hand, the lunchroom service is left entirely up to individual building principals. They usually appoint a teacher to take charge of the lunchroom and give to this teacher the authority to hire whatever student or outside help is needed. This involves a good deal of work and the handling of considerable money during the course of the school year. Purchases of food and equipment must be made, workers paid, food items sold, accurate records kept, and a thorough accounting given of all income received and money paid out for expenses.

A similar responsibility must be assumed by the teacher who sponsors a student store. Although these stores are operated primarily for the convenience and economy of students, Van Newkirk found in a study of student stores in Pennsylvania that about one third of them are used to raise funds for (1) athletics in the school, (2) the senior class and its activities, (3) Christmas charities in the community, (4) the high school band, and (5) the cafeteria in the school.²⁸ The findings in this same study

²⁸ Frank Van Newkirk, *A Study of the Stores in the Secondary Schools of Pennsylvania*, p. 17. Unpublished Master's thesis, Teachers College, Temple University, 1942.

likewise revealed that, regardless of the purpose involved, the actual management of student stores falls upon the faculty sponsor. He hires the clerks, purchases the stock, checks the receipts from sales, and does the bookkeeping involved.²⁹ His domination suggests that the financial responsibilities attached to the sponsorship take priority over the educational opportunities provided by this project.

Student Activities

Teachers who are placed in charge of the activities that make up the extracurricular program frequently have a heavy responsibility for the management of student funds. Occasionally dues are assessed by certain clubs and organizations to finance their activities. The dues are, as a rule, collected by the student treasurer and either turned over by him to the faculty sponsor for safekeeping or deposited with the treasurer, if the school has a central banking system. All disbursements of these funds require faculty approval before they are used. At the close of the year, the student treasurer must file a report with the principal or the central treasurer showing the sources of income and the nature of the expenditures. To be valid, this report must be certified by the faculty sponsor.

The income of many student groups in secondary schools amounts to hundreds of dollars each year. Money is received from ticket sales to plays, musicals, exhibits, and various types of contests. It is not unusual for a single play to gross between five and ten thousand dollars in schools having large enrollments. Much more money is involved in the receipts from athletic contests. In addition to these sources of revenue, funds are received from the showing of motion pictures, sales of school newspapers and magazines, subscriptions to yearbooks, admissions to dances, sales of school rings and other insignia, and fees collected for field trips.

There has been a definite trend in most secondary schools to reduce the volume of ticket sales and fee collections for student activities by lumping all charges together, striking an average

²⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 71.

cost, and selling a single student ticket covering admission to and participation in all school activities. However, since the charge for one of these tickets usually amounts to a dollar or more per person, provision is made for their purchases in one, two, or more installments.

Any teacher who sponsors a student group should be willing to delegate as much responsibility to the members of the group as they are able to carry. At the same time, the teacher should realize that it is necessary to take precautions against the temptations that arise when students are entrusted with the handling of large sums of money. Reduced to a system of careful records and reports, this problem can be managed efficiently without destroying the educational values involved.

School Fees

Several different kinds of fees are collected from students in school, outside of those related to the activities program. Teachers are required to collect fees for instructional supplies and materials used by pupils in schools where these items are not provided at public expense. Often they must charge for laboratory materials and collect breakage fees for equipment used in science courses. It is not unusual to find them selling outline maps, special paper, art supplies, ink, pencils, and similar items even in schools where the board of education supplies the basic materials. Many school systems hold the teacher responsible for the collection of fines on books that are overdue, damage by pupils to school equipment, and textbooks that are unnecessarily worn or lost. Receipts must be issued to pupils for such fees as well as those received for the rental of locks and the sales of used materials and equipment. All such fees collected by the teacher must be reported in detail to the principal of the school.

Other Funds

The other funds for which teachers have a responsibility vary somewhat with units of the school system, being more common to the elementary than to the secondary grades. Collecting money for milk is a task of the elementary teacher that calls for a cer-

tain amount of clerical work. He must see that pupils receive milk daily and that the milk is paid for at least on a weekly basis. Occasionally, parent-teacher associations set aside a petty cash fund from which teachers may make withdrawals for the purchase of supplies that are not provided by the board of education. Teachers are required to supervise pupil deposits in personal savings accounts in schools where provision is made for this type of banking. Sizeable sums of money pass through the teacher's hands in the course of a year from collections for the Red Cross, Community Chest, cancer drives, special benefits, infantile paralysis foundations, flower funds, and similar charitable enterprises.

RELATED READINGS

Begg, William Roy, "Accounting for Class Funds," *School Executive*, 62:28-29. February, 1943.

The accounting system used as a basis for budget making and the financial record keeping of a high school class is explained in this article.

Burke, Harry A., "Omaha Schools Face Acute Financial Situation," *American School Board Journal*, 114:45-46. April, 1947.

Depicts the finance problems faced by one school system. The problems discussed here are common to school systems throughout the country today.

Covert, Timon, *Federal Government Funds for Education 1940-41 and 1941-42*. U. S. Office of Education Leaflet No. 70. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1944.

Discusses the total amounts of money provided by the Federal Government for educational purposes.

Federal Aid for Education, Research Bulletin, Vol. XX, September, 1942. Washington: Research Division, National Education Association.

This bulletin discloses facts about existing inequalities in educational opportunities among states which support the case in favor of federal aid to schools.

Kulp, Claude L., "How We Budget," *Nation's Schools*, 32:34-35. November, 1943.

Reveals a plan used in the public schools of Ithaca, New York, for estimating expenditures in detail by school units.

Moehlman, Arthur B., "Pattern for Federal Aid," *Nation's Schools*, 35:19. May, 1945.

Recommends that the problem of federal aid for schools be worked out by a national committee.

Moehlman, Arthur B., *School Administration*, Chaps. 20, 32. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1940.

Local district finance practices and state school finance systems are described respectively in these chapters.

Mulford, Herbert B., "Financing Your New School Buildings," *American School Board Journal*, 114:23-24, 82. January, 1947.

Contains a good deal of sound advice relative to school financial problems, including outlays for new buildings.

School Finance Goals, Research Bulletin, Vol. XXIV, October, 1946.

Washington: Research Division, National Education Association.

A survey indicating the extent to which recommendations for financing public education are in actual operation.

State School Finance Systems, Research Bulletin, Vol. XX, November, 1942. Washington: Research Division, National Education Association.

Sources of state school revenues, methods of apportioning state aid for schools, and the major trends and problems of state school finance are discussed.

State Tax Legislation Affecting School Revenues, 1939-1943, Research Bulletin, Vol. XXII, October, 1944. Washington: Research Division, National Education Association.

Reviews changes made in state tax laws producing revenues for public schools. Especially valuable to the beginning student for the information supplied on sources of educational income.

The Improvement of Public Education in Michigan, The Report of the Michigan Public Education Study Commission. Lansing: The Commission, 1944.

The report is divided into three parts. The first part describes current educational conditions in the state. The second outlines the general needs of education in Michigan. The third contains a series of proposals for the improvement of public schools. Numerous charts and tables accompany the text.

What Education Our Money Buys. Albany: Educational Conference Board of New York State, 1943.

Shows what educational returns may be expected for the amount of money spent for public schools.

Chapter 18

PARTICIPATING IN SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

THE FACT THAT teachers are taking a more active part in the determination of fiscal policies and practices in local school systems, as was pointed out in the preceding chapter, is consistent with the viewpoint that school administration should be a co-operative undertaking in which authority is shared among those who have a responsibility for the facilitation of the instructional process.

This viewpoint is contrary to established practices in school administration which are patterned largely after those found in competitive business enterprise. The determination of policies and the planning of programs are entrusted almost exclusively to those in the higher executive positions with teachers doing the work they are directed to carry out. They are not considered capable of dealing intelligently with administrative problems, either by virtue of their training or their experience. The product of this administrative arrangement has been the stratification of personnel at various levels of authority, each level taking its orders from the one immediately above it. As a natural result of such a hierarchy, teaching and administration have been considered as separate aspects of the educational program.

A growing conviction with regard to the importance of democracy in American life and the acceptance of an educational philosophy committed to the attainment of democratic ideals have caused many administrators to examine frankly the operation of their own schools. They have discovered that existing practices tended much more toward an authoritarian type of con-

trol with little evidence to support their beliefs in the democratic way of life. Realizing that the school must live by the philosophy it advocates, they have sought to break down line, administrative organization and to evolve a more decentralized type of structure in which all personnel who are connected with the instruction of children, either directly or indirectly, have an active part in the determination of policy, the planning of programs, and the implementing of decisions.

THE MEANING OF DEMOCRACY IN SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

If an accurate survey could be made of the administrative practices in schools that claim to be democratic, it is likely that a wide range of differences would be found. Some would be democratic in name only, whereas others would illustrate concretely how democracy functions. Like other significant abstractions, democracy suffers from cloudy meanings, vague interpretations, and intentional distortions that are made to fit one series of practices and to condemn another.

To most people, the term *democracy* is associated with a political system in which everyone, by virtue of citizenship, age, and residence, is permitted to vote and to hold office regardless of intellectual, social, and moral qualifications. The state is regarded as the servant of the people and constitutional guarantees assure to the individual the right to think without restraint, to express his political views, and to act upon public issues without fear of punishment. He may engage in enterprises of his own choosing and enjoy with public protection the use of private property. No social barriers block his pathway to progress and society encourages him to develop in accordance with his own ability. In this way of life, democracy becomes more than a political system—it is a scheme of social living.

In this scheme of social living, men must learn to live and work together for the solution of common problems affecting the welfare of both the individual and the group. They must be willing to rule out selfish interest and to accept the responsibility that goes along with the right to determine their own way of life. Provision must be made for equality of opportunity for

all individuals. This does not mean, however, that equal opportunity can be provided for every person, for the simple reason that individuals differ widely in their interests, tastes, aptitudes, and sense of values. Nor does this mean that equal opportunities shall be provided on the basis of special qualifications, because this would be contrary to the very nature of democracy, i.e., that social benefits shall be shared by all irrespective of their special qualifications. What this principle does imply is that each individual shall have opportunities that are in keeping with his interests, needs, and abilities. In essence, the democratic way of life is primarily a struggle to lift living to a higher level of human relationships in thought and action.

In applying democracy to the administration of a school, it will be helpful for the beginning teacher to think of *administration* as an activity or series of activities through which the aims of the school and the means for their achievement are developed and placed into operation. He should realize that this involves working closely with people, building various forms of organizational relationships, distributing responsibility, co-ordinating services, and appraising the effectiveness of the entire program. In defining administration as a process of working with people and co-ordinating their efforts into a smooth, functioning whole, it is obvious that responsibility can no longer be centered in a single individual. It must be distributed widely among all who have a part in the institutional program. The emphasis is shifted from skill in the use of techniques for getting things done to the process of developing co-operative thought and action and the opportunities created for individual and group leadership. This emphasis tends to destroy the traditional levels of status which divide individuals into those who decide and those who do. In reality, the function of administration is the function of the school itself in a democratic society.

The problem of administering a school democratically becomes one of providing opportunities for the full participation of teachers, as well as pupils, parents, and other school employees, in the formulation of educational policies, the planning of sound programs, the execution of plans, and the evaluation of results.

It is one thing to consult teachers and other interested individuals before decisions are reached and another thing to share with them the responsibility that goes along with the making of decisions. It is this latter area of common consent that characterizes democracy in school administration.

PURPOSES AND VALUES

To prepare children to live successfully in a democracy imposes upon teachers the task of developing individuals who possess the skills demanded by this type of social living. This cannot be done by being sentimental about democratic ideals or by merely talking about democratic values. As important as these considerations may be, the development of democratic behaviors in children depends fundamentally upon the relationship of the child to the teacher and the nature of the daily living experiences that are provided by the school. And, because the teacher is the most important single factor in this developmental process, it is imperative that he should understand the meaning of democracy, believe in its values, and exemplify in conduct the true spirit of the democratic person.

Those who have given thought to the problem of democracy in school administration recognize that teachers must learn how to be democratic and that the effectiveness of their learning depends upon the extent to which opportunities are provided for their participation in the development of school programs. Although many officials are willing, and even anxious, to make the school a bulwark of democracy, they are unable to accept the concept of sharing responsibility for decisions with nonadministrative personnel. Arguing that education is a function of the state which follows definite lines of authority laid down by law, they express viewpoints comparable to the following statement of a superintendent of schools:

I believe it is the wish of the public to place upon its board of education, and upon definitely chosen executives, the responsibility for what happens in the schools, and the public does not care to have that responsibility thrust back upon it, nor will the public exonerate a superintendent of schools who may give

as his excuse for a bad decision the fact that he distributed his authority and responsibility among the members of his staff. It is perfectly clear that American communities are acting upon the theory that the board and executives are responsible. . . . We must face the fact that no board, or superintendent, or chosen executive, can make excuse to answer satisfactorily his public in terms that any action was taken because he had shared his authority and responsibility with his associates.¹

Despite the tendency of some superintendents to justify their position on the question of shared responsibility in terms of legal mandates, there are others who hold different views. They have created opportunities for teachers to have an active and significant part in the formulation of policies and the development of programs affecting an entire school system or particular units of it. They see, for example, that when teachers become a part of the administrative process they learn techniques of group thinking, come to look upon the operation of the school as a whole, understand better the methods used in seeking the solution to difficult problems, and develop definite patterns of democratic behaviors. More specifically, they develop such behaviors as those presented in the following list, which was produced by a group of teachers who made a careful analysis of this problem:

1. They respect the individual personality
2. They consider the rights of others
3. They cooperate with others
4. They use their talents for both individual and social profit
5. They discover and accept their own inadequacies and improve upon them, if possible
6. They lead or follow according to their abilities for the benefit of the group
7. They assume responsibilities inherent in the freedom of a group
8. They solve their problems by thinking them through rather than by resorting to force and emotions

¹De Witt S. Morgan, "Some Difficulties Inherent in the Development of Democratic Procedures in City School Administration," *Democratic Practices in School Administration*, p. 34. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1939.

9. They govern themselves for the common good
10. They accept the rule of the majority while respecting the rights of the minority
11. They are tolerant
12. They think, speak, and act freely, with due regard for the rights of others
13. They adapt themselves to changing conditions in a democracy, for individual and common good
14. They are constantly seeking to achieve the most effective democratic way of living
15. They seek by their own example to lead other persons to live democratically.²

Besides these potential outcomes of teacher participation in the administration of the school, other values are attributed to this scheme of social living. It is claimed that teacher participation (1) results in the continuous improvement of instructional policies and programs, (2) increases the extent to which agreement is sought and decisions reached on pertinent problems, (3) leads to a redefinition of the purposes of education in terms of the behaviors thought best in a democratic society, (4) calls for the modification of classroom procedures, (5) makes possible the distinctive contribution of each individual, (6) presents opportunities for teachers to gain recognition from the group with whom they work and from those in administrative leadership, (7) gives teachers a chance to be more fully identified with an important field of human activity, (8) creates a broader understanding of administrative problems, and (9) improves morale.

PRINCIPLES OF DEMOCRACY IN ADMINISTRATION

The beginning teacher should realize that certain specific principles or guides to action must be observed before the purposes and values of their participation in policy and program development can be attained. Known as principles of democracy in administration, these guides to action reflect the educational philosophy of the school and make possible a consistent course

² Willard B. Spalding and William C. Kvaraceus, "What Do We Mean By Democracy?" *American School Board Journal*, 108:50. February, 1944.

or direction in administrative affairs. For the beginning teacher, they can likewise be used as criteria for judging the extent to which a given school is engaging in democratic practices.

1. *The development of policies and the planning of educational programs should be undertaken jointly by teachers and administrators with authority shared equally among those who participate in the process.* The observance of this principle means that important educational decisions cannot be made by those at the top and carried out by another group at the bottom. Democracy in administration requires that there shall be a diffusion of authority within the framework of the school. Participation without responsibility for the decisions reached is neither democratic, nor is it sound, administrative procedure. When the principle of shared authority is accepted in practice, it eliminates the conventional arrangement of the superior-inferior in the organization and administration of the school. It brings about a more decentralized type of organizational structure wherein personnel are related one to the other on a basis of the functions they perform, not on a basis of the positions they hold.

2. *Planning should grow out of the recognized needs and interests of those who are affected by the plan, and be based upon a carefully organized series of facts.* In keeping with this principle, all opinions should be reviewed thoroughly in the light of known fact and decisions reached on the basis of scientific data. When sufficient data are not available, such decisions as are made should be regarded as temporary and subject to revision when the necessary facts are found. It may be necessary to initiate experimental procedures in order to obtain these facts, or to encourage individuals to undertake research essential to their discovery. As a matter of policy, every individual who shares in the planning process should be encouraged to engage in fact finding and learn to reach conclusions derived from pertinent and reliable data. Not only does this policy reduce the element of chance in making decisions, but it also enriches the knowledge and understanding of those who take part in the planning.

3. *Responsibility for the execution of policy and program should be centered in either the administrative leader or of the*

school or certain committees to which definite aspects of administration have been assigned. Centralization of authority is necessary for the efficient implementation of policy and program and the co-ordination activities engaged in by faculty personnel. Where a centralized type of structural organization is retained, the administrative leader has a responsibility for defining and setting the limits of individual and group responsibilities. He uses his authority, in this respect, to delegate as much responsibility as individuals and groups are competent to undertake. At the same time he encourages democratic relationships among all employed personnel and opens opportunities for them to engage in leadership activities. In doing this, he recognizes that the school will function democratically only to the extent that its staff is educated in the ways of democracy. Where a decentralized type of structural organization has been adopted, similar functions will be centered in committees to which certain areas of administration have been assigned, such as supervision and curriculum development, public relations, teacher welfare, and the like. In general, a much higher level of democratic functioning is required in schools using a partial or complete type of decentralized organizational arrangement.

4. *Teachers must have the right to disagree with existing policies and programs and to make recommendations for their modification and improvement.* Legal channels must be established through which teachers may express their opinions regarding existing policies and programs and present facts relative to their efficiency in operation. This privilege, however, should carry with it the responsibility for upholding decisions that are reached even though there is some dissatisfaction with them. Such dissatisfaction should be used as an incentive for conducting further investigation leading, if necessary, to desirable changes in policies and programs. The same sense of freedom to express openly disagreements with existing practices should be experienced by teachers in committee meetings, rest rooms, and places of common meeting within the school.

5. *Teachers must have the right to form their own professional organizations without criticism or obstruction on the part*

of the administration and the board of education. A distinction must be drawn between the rights of the teacher as an employee of the school system and as a member of an outside, professional group. As a member of an outside, special-interest group, the teacher should be permitted to engage in, without criticism by school officials, any series of activities designed to protect and advance the welfare of the profession. In this respect, the activities of teacher groups are no different than the activities of special-interest groups found in any community. Any attempt by school officials to obstruct or prevent teachers from engaging in such activities or joining organizations interested in their personal and professional welfare should be regarded as being antagonistic to the concept of democratic functioning.

6. *Public school administration must be based upon a deep understanding of human nature and a genuine respect for human personality.* This is an important principle since the heart of the administrative process is found in the character of the relationship between members of the staff. Because administrators work with human beings, they must encourage the development of personality in every individual and provide the opportunities through which growth may take place. It is their responsibility to eliminate the barriers to freedom in thought and action and to create an environment in which there is evident a faith in the dignity and worth of the individual. Though budgets, buildings, and supplies must be taken into account, their contribution to the purposes of the school are slight when compared to the development and use of human resources. They can be made more significant, however, when they are studied co-operatively and decisions are reached by those who are ultimately responsible for their use.

7. *Administrative procedures must be flexible and readily adjustable to new needs and conditions.* There is a tendency in administration for various procedures to become fixed and static. Administrators are frequently unwilling to keep pace with new developments or to effect changes essential to their own growth and the growth of faculty members. They resist attempts at the reorganization of administrative machinery mainly because

of their attitudes toward change. It stands to reason that administrative procedures must be self-modifying in order to meet successfully changes taking place in the purposes, policies, and program of the school. Administration must be an integral part of the total educational process; it cannot be separated from that which is being administered.

8. *The products of group planning must be subjected to a continuous process of evaluation.* The process of evaluation must be carried on by those who are responsible for the formulation and development of policies and programs. Using as scientific an approach as possible to the problem of gathering data, efforts should be made to determine the extent to which various policies and programs have achieved their goals. Conclusions from such findings then become the basis for making desirable changes. At the same time the evaluative process should be viewed as an effective means for improving the intellectual and social experiences of teachers and, through their improvement, lead to better instruction for children.

9. *Standards of efficiency in professional services and the use of material resources should be developed and maintained at all times.* Efficiency in a democratic institution implies a wholesome development and judicious spending of human and material resources. Standards of efficiency should be arrived at through a process of group discussion and described in terms of contributions made to the purposes of the school. Considerable care and attention should be given to the place and importance of physical and psychological working conditions as well as to the adequacy of supplies and equipment with which to work. Of fundamental importance is the right assignment of individuals to the jobs they are qualified by training, experience, and temperament to perform, and the careful nurturing of democratic relationships between members of the teaching corps. Recognition for service well performed should be granted publicly. It does not have to be in the form of promotion or a monetary reward. In a democratic setting, group recognition acknowledged openly represents a satisfying return to the individual and offers a strong

incentive for further performance at the same high level of achievement. When reasonable standards of work performance are developed with reference to purposes, proper working conditions are maintained, and recognition is given for outstanding service, democracy in administration operates efficiently.

It is quite probable that a majority of beginning teachers will start their professional careers in schools operating under a centralized type of administrative control. They will not be able to do very much about the adoption of democratic principles at first, but they can work consistently for an understanding of these principles and their eventual acceptance. In a number of instances, the new teacher will be employed by a school system in which democratic practices are already in operation and will use the principles as guides for his own actions.

OPPORTUNITIES FOR PARTICIPATION

In any objective analysis of the opportunities for teacher participation in school administration, numerous problems are found that lend themselves to co-operative study by teachers and administrators. It is through the study of these problems and the desire to find workable solutions that the real benefits of teacher participation in school administration arise. Several problems will be discussed in this section showing how teachers and administrators may work together.

Developing a Philosophy of Education

A philosophy of education cannot be imposed upon teachers by those in positions of authority. They may hand prepared statements to teachers describing the philosophy of the school and order them to live by this philosophy in their classroom teaching. Such statements may be accepted courteously by teachers and a semblance of conformity developed to avoid personal criticism. Actually, however, such statements make very little difference in classroom practices. What a teacher thinks and believes is peculiar to himself and to no one else. His philosophy of education represents the sum total of all elements that

have shaped his living over a period of years—his experiences, ideals, attitudes, opinions, successes and failures. It is too deep seated and complex to yield to change at once.

It is true that many teachers are uncertain about their philosophy of education and inarticulate in their ability to express it, yet their philosophy determines, at any one time, what they do and the values they hold to be important. If the school is to have a common philosophy behind its program, then steps must be taken by administrators and teachers to discuss openly what they believe and through this process to arrive at basic understandings respecting the nature of the child, the functions of the school in society, and how learning most effectively takes place. Unless this is done, there is little hope of having a unified philosophy underlying the educational program of the school.

Improving the Curriculum

Analogous to the problem of developing a philosophy of education is the problem of improving or designing the curriculum. Formerly, it was an established practice for administrators to prepare and publish courses of study with directions for teachers to follow in using them. They generally contained a long list of aims, outlines of the subject matter to be taught, chapter and page references in textbooks and supplementary reading materials, and notes on the methods of teaching recommended. In many instances, specialists in specific subjects were hired by the school system to develop new courses of study and to reorganize the old ones either by themselves or in co-operation with local committees of administrators, teachers, or both. This procedure is still followed in a few school systems today and the evidence of it may be found in their published courses of study.

This procedure has had very little influence upon the improvement of classroom instruction. The teachers who received these materials did not understand them because they had nothing to do with their preparation. They were unwilling to take the time or to give the thought required for their assimilation. They preferred to follow their own practices and to enjoy the security to which they were accustomed.

It is now realized that the educational philosophy of the teacher, his understanding of the teaching-learning situation, his knowledge of curriculum construction, and his attitudes toward the learner determine in the last analysis the effectiveness of the instructional program. Consequently, teachers are being encouraged to work with administrative and supervisory leaders on a study of the problems that arise from their own teaching, to change their own practices, and to try out new and better ways of improving the curriculum. The specialist now serves as a resource person who is called upon for helpful suggestions and used as a leader to encourage the creative efforts of teachers. Through the process of curriculum improvement, teachers are learning how democracy may be applied; they are reflecting their experiences in classroom work with children.

Planning the Supervisory Program

Another problem that lends itself to co-operative study between teachers and administrators is that of planning the supervisory program. Both teachers and supervisors have a common responsibility for the continuous improvement of instruction and need to acquire an over-all understanding of the problems and accomplishments of the school. As Caswell and Campbell point out:

Supervision depends for its full effectiveness upon the existence between teachers and supervisors of a common ground of agreement as to the essentials of the educational program. Such agreement may be reached by individual teachers and the supervisor through a trial and error process based upon personal relationships. This method is uncertain in outcomes and is time consuming. Agreement may be reached, as well, by means of orderly group consideration of the issues involved. This latter method may be carried forward in organized form with thoroughgoing analysis and study, and is distinctly superior in most respects to dependence upon personal relationships.³

³ H. L. Caswell and D. S. Campbell, *Curriculum Development*, p. 79. New York: American Book Company, 1935.

When teachers and supervisors plan a comprehensive program in supervision, they come directly in contact with such questions as the adequacy of the curriculum, the success and failure of pupils, learning difficulties experienced in classrooms, the treatment of individual differences, physical conditions affecting instruction, the service of supplies, and the outcomes of instruction. Not only does a supervisory program planned around these problems produce better results, but it also insures a definite organization of professional activity directed toward the accomplishment of certain definite purposes. Among these purposes may be better co-ordination among all personnel involved in the program, the stimulation and growth of professional effort, the selection of supervisory techniques fitted to particular needs, and the acceptance of a democratic philosophy of education. Besides these benefits, the planning and putting into operation of a supervisory program is the surest means now available for bringing about the personal and professional growth of teachers in service—the principal objective of supervision.

Conducting Faculty Meetings

Until relatively recent times, it was the custom of elementary and secondary school principals to hold faculty meetings at stated intervals throughout the school year or at other times when it was felt that they were needed. Usually, the principal presided at the meetings and took up any matter of business he wished. The meetings were often used for making administrative announcements that could just as easily have been distributed in mimeograph form to teachers. Sometimes they were made an occasion for berating teachers on their failure to perform certain duties with dispatch and efficiency. Occasionally, instructional problems were discussed and decisions reached that affected the policies of the school. In general, they were not regarded with favor by the majority of teachers who were forced to attend them.

Today faculty meetings in democratically administered schools are organized and conducted by the teachers themselves with the principal occupying a position no greater than that of

any other staff member. Group purposes form the basis for co-operative planning and problems are studied that have vital meaning for teachers. Among the problems studied may be techniques of educative discipline, democratic classroom control, planning the philosophy of the school, community resources, evaluative procedures, pupil adjustment difficulties, how children learn, and many others. Through this process of group study, teachers learn to live together, acquire techniques of group thinking, grow in professional competency, and find greater pleasure and satisfaction in their work.

Determining Personnel Policies

The determination of personnel policies constitutes an important area for the free flow of practices in democratic school administration. Being concerned with the selection, retention, and promotion of faculty members as well as load, salary, sick leave, and merit rating, these policies are directly related to the personal and professional welfare of teachers.

Teachers have tried for several years to secure a voice in the determination of personnel policies. Their own ideas and opinions have often been in conflict with those of the administration. They have resented the unjust dismissal of colleagues, unfair promotion practices, disregard of merit, and the use of coercive but subtle means for penalizing those who did not agree with the rulings and policies of the school board and superintendent. Although they have not succeeded generally in securing a voice in policy determination, they have been able to change many practices and to eliminate the more destructive ones. This has come about largely through the work of teachers' associations, especially in the field of state legislation.

Responding to the pressure of teacher groups, some administrators have, under the guise of democracy, created advisory councils for the discussion of policies with representatives of the faculty. Not infrequently the representatives are hand picked by the superintendent and the rank and file of the teachers have no control over their selection. Moreover, the majority have nothing to say with regard to the decisions that are reached.

If teachers are to take part in the administration of the school, then they should be permitted to select their own members for important policy committees and be able to instruct them about the wishes of the majority. They should likewise have full authority to bring up for discussion any question in which they have a personal or professional interest. The decisions reached should accurately reflect the studied opinion of the entire group following a thorough analysis of the facts involved.

Among the personnel policies of the school, teachers should share in decisions pertaining to salary schedules, the qualifications of applicants for instructional positions, the actual selection of such personnel, the rating of teachers on the job, their promotion and merit recognition. In commenting upon merit and recognition for service, Shafer points out that:

In a democracy the reward of greatest worth is not bequeathed by the administrator, neither is it in the form of pecuniary prizes but in the form of public recognition for service rendered. Furthermore, ability and accomplishment are recognized and thus rewarded by the group. Here again the need for continuous and systematic research by members of the group becomes pertinent and is brought into focus by gathering evidence on achievement. Creative participation of all members in a common progressing cause aids in the evaluating and awarding process, while at the same time it inspires confidence and promotes self-discipline. Members of a democratic association soon tire of being "done good to", but thrive on fair treatment and human consideration, especially with respect to correct placement, promotion, demotion, transfer, etc.⁴

The time is rapidly passing when teachers can be compelled to sit back and accept decisions from above concerning teaching schedules, work beyond the regular school day, sick leave allowances, and other matters of employment. The question is no longer one of so-called professional conduct, but one of protect-

⁴ Hugh M. Shafer, "Principles of Democratic Personnel Relationships in Administration," *American School Board Journal*, 108:19. April, 1944.

ing rights and insisting upon fair treatment. Spalding makes this point forcefully when he says:

Because teachers are members of a profession, they are supposed to seek better pay and better working conditions only by making polite representations to the administrative staff and through them to the board, rather than by simple and direct request to the employing group for these betterments because they have a basic and demonstrable right to them. Because schools are operated to help boys and girls for the public good, the teachers who work in these schools are continually reminded of the fact that children come first and that it is unprofessional to do anything which might be interpreted as meaning anything else. These ideas are hokum of the rankest kind. Teachers are skilled employees working in the public interest. So are the electricians and engineers on the public payroll. What is true of one is just as true of the other.⁵

Though agreement may be given to the viewpoint presented by Spalding, there is a danger that it may be interpreted as meaning that teachers should become more highly organized expressly for the purpose of demanding certain rights and privileges. It is one thing to secure these objectives by forceful, pressure practices and another thing to acquire them through democratic processes.

Planning School Buildings

The typical school building of the past was designed by architects working under the direction of the school superintendent and his administrative staff. Regarded exclusively as a specialized field of administration, teachers were rarely consulted about building plans. The evidence of this administrative specialty may be seen in the thousands of buildings throughout the country where the physical arrangements and provisions for

⁵ Willard B. Spalding, "Organizing the Personnel of a Democratic School System," *Changing Conceptions in Educational Administration*, p. 68. Forty-fifth Yearbook, Part II. National Society for the Study of Education. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1946.

space bear little functional relationship to the needs of children or the instructional program of the school.

Rich opportunities are present in school plant planning for the participation of teachers. When permitted to share in the planning of a new building, they have demonstrated conclusively that a better product results. Starting with the social, physical, and educational needs of children, teachers have been able to point out, among other practical considerations, the amount of floor space required by various types of learning activities, the size and location of the auditorium for school and community use, the placement and design of the library, the physical features of classrooms essential to instruction, where insulation against sound should be provided, the layout for special rooms where speech, dramatic, and musical activities are carried on, the most convenient location of administrative and service offices, and the amount of closet and storage space needed by themselves.

Koopman, Miel, and Misner report that a number of significant changes were made in the original plans of one school as a result of teacher participation. The building was changed from three stories to two stories; two classrooms with an auxiliary room between them were made into one large generalized classroom to facilitate the operation of an activity program; and the internal design of the building and its equipment "were practically dictated by the teachers."⁶

Further Opportunities for Participation

Many other opportunities for co-operative study and action may be found in the average school besides those which have been described in the preceding paragraphs. Some of these opportunities are reported by Williams, who conducted a questionnaire study in six selected school systems employing a total of 526 teachers. He listed the following activities in which teachers participated, according to their own statements and those of the principals and superintendents:⁷

⁶ G. Robert Koopman, Alice Miel, and Paul J. Misner, *Democracy in School Administration*, p. 213. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., 1943.

⁷ O. S. Williams, "Administrative Activities in Which Teachers Participate Democratically," *American School Board Journal*, 105:40-41. September, 1942.

1. Building and evaluating the course of study
2. Selecting textbooks
3. Determining standards of conduct
4. Formulating extra-curricular objectives and practices
5. Planning assembly programs.
6. Determining playground supervisory practices
7. Determining disciplinary practices
8. Determining pupil classification practices
9. Preparing the daily program
10. Determining the time pupils may enter the building
11. Determining promotion policies and practices
12. Planning and conducting teachers' meetings
13. Selecting and administering tests
14. Preparing the salary schedule
15. Evaluating pupil personnel
16. Developing and planning pupil records and reports
17. Determining participation in parades, pageants, etc.
18. Preparing the school calendar
19. Planning the policy of teacher absence due to illness
20. Determining class size
21. Preparing the budget
22. Formulating supervisory activities
23. Evaluating teaching personnel
24. Assigning teachers to buildings and grades
25. Evaluating maintenance personnel
26. Planning school buildings
27. Employing teachers
28. Discharging teachers

In commenting upon the findings of this study, Williams observed "that under the present legal restrictions the board of education finally approves many of the policies concerning activities . . . before they become effective. Consequently, democratic participation in determining such policies needs be considered at this time as essentially a recommendatory function. However, in such circumstances, instead of the administrative staff alone formulating its recommendations to the board of education, the entire professional staff either as a body or by means of a representative group formulates the recommendations in a

democratic manner and presents them to the board through the superintendent.”⁸ This does not reduce in any way the opportunities for teacher participation in school administration. It merely recognizes that under our form of government final authority rests with the representatives of the people. Teachers and administrators can still exemplify in their way of life how democracy can function in meeting the educational problems of a school system.

ORGANIZING FOR PARTICIPATION

If the opportunities for teacher participation in school administration are to be used for practicing democracy and solving educational problems, then some form of organization must be built for undertaking co-operative work in formulating, adopting, and administering policies and programs. The organization should fit the needs existing in each particular school situation.

It has been customary for schools to start their organization by setting up representative committees or councils to which teachers are elected. These committees act in general on school problems or they handle problems occurring in certain definite areas of administration. Frequently, their work is limited to the discussion of instructional issues. In a number of instances, the principal or superintendent serves as the chairman of the committee or is an *ex officio* member who tends to dominate and direct the deliberations of the committee. It is not uncommon to find the principal or superintendent serving as the source of final authority on all decisions that are made. Under these conditions the committees or councils amount to little more than agencies for collecting suggestions and getting teacher reactions to administrative proposals.

No matter how the faculty may be organized for participation, the machinery will not perform satisfactorily unless certain basic factors are recognized. In the first place, the structural organization should be planned either by teachers themselves or jointly by teachers and administrators. Second, the teaching

⁸ *Ibid.*

group should have the exclusive right to select their own representatives. Third, the size and membership of committees should be worked out carefully by teachers and administrators. Fourth, the committees should be given authority to make decisions that really matter in the life of the school. Fifth, the areas of study and authority assigned to each committee should be carefully defined. Sixth, provision should be made for working with students and adult members of the community. Recognition of these factors is essential to the success of any organizational arrangement, whether it applies to an individual school or an entire school system.

Organization for an Individual School

In planning faculty organization for a single school, Koopman, Miel, and Misner advocate four basic committees, namely, Socialization, Community-Relations, Teacher-Affairs, and Curriculum-Activities.⁹ Serving as an agency for co-ordinating the work of the other three committees, the Socialization Committee also concerns itself with the function of the school in society and the means that need to be adopted for realizing this function. The Community-Relations Committee deals with the problem of interpreting the community to the school and the school to the community. The study of professional questions related to the welfare of faculty members is handled by the Teacher-Affairs Committee, as well as the problem of translating accepted policies into action. Planning and organizing various aspects of the program of studies are cared for by the Curriculum-Activities Committee.

Each of these four committees makes a series of definite recommendations at the close of the school term that are used as a basis for planning group-study projects for the following year. These projects are presented to the entire faculty for their consideration and final approval.

A more extensive committee system of organization is described by Woods as having worked well in a junior high

⁹ G. Robert Koopman, Alice Miel and Paul J. Misner, *op. cit.*, pp. 78-84.

school.¹⁰ A Professional Committee, of about ten members, has the responsibility for organizing faculty study groups and presenting matters of professional interest to the teachers. A Committee on Public Relations takes care of publicity in the local newspaper and arranges for faculty and student participation in community affairs. Health matters are handled through a Health Committee having student and faculty members. An Evaluation Committee refers problems suggested by teachers to subcommittees for study and investigation. Guidance Committees operate at each grade level for the analysis and correction of pupil maladjustment cases. Finally, a Committee on the Orientation of New Teachers takes care of the needs of new staff members. A serious effort is made to conduct committee business as democratically as possible.

Organization for a School System

Various plans of organization for teacher participation have been developed in city school systems. An example of one plan is found at Oak Park, Illinois, where a council form of organization was started as early as 1919.¹¹ Every teacher who signs an employment contract in the school system automatically becomes a member of the council. The council is governed in its work by a constitution and set of bylaws, which provide among other things for three major types of councils, as shown in Figure 40. According to the constitution and bylaws, the General Council consists of all members of the teaching staff—teachers, principals, and supervisors. They meet monthly throughout the school year for the discussion of educational problems. To satisfy the demands of teachers who wished to deal with specific problems in special fields, several Group Councils were established. The officers and elected representatives from these councils constitute the membership of the Executive Council. This latter council serves as a clearing center for the

¹⁰ Elizabeth L. Woods, "Yes, But the Principal Said . . . !" *Progressive Education*, 18:86. February, 1941.

¹¹ William J. Hamilton, "The Teachers' Council in the Oak Park Schools," *Democratic Practices in School Administration*, pp. 179-88. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1939.

open discussion of problems of common concern to the teachers and the superintendent. It also appoints qualified teachers to membership on four standing committees—Curriculum, Methods, Welfare, and Professional Welfare. Each of these committees, as their titles suggest, deals with important aspects of the complete educational program.

The work assigned to the various councils covers such items as textbook selection, curriculum, reorganization, correlation of

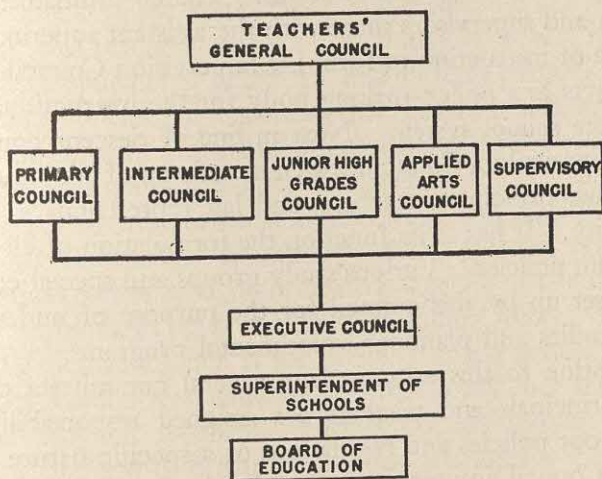


FIGURE 40. Council Organization, Oak Park Elementary Schools.¹²

instructional activities, study of salary schedules, assisting in the formulation of rules and regulations, development of in-service training programs, teacher welfare, and home-school relationships. After these and similar administrative questions have been discussed by the councils, their recommendations may be carried directly by committees of teachers to the board of education at regular meetings or before the standing committees of the board.

An example of teacher participation on a more modified scale may be found in the public schools of San Diego, California.¹³

¹² *Ibid.*, p. 180.

¹³ Will C. Crawford, "Democratic Policy-Making in a School System," *The School Executive*, 63:32-34. March, 1944.

A committee form of organization has been adopted there with several councils operating at different levels throughout the school system. An Executive Council consisting of the superintendent and the members of his administrative staff meet weekly "to determine administrative policies of a system-wide nature." Among the policies considered by this council are those pertaining to the supervision of cadet and probationary teachers, grouping of pupils, rating of teachers, school buildings and equipment, and public relations. The co-ordinators of instruction and supervisors meet with the assistant superintendent in charge of instruction to form the Supervision Council. This council acts as a policy-making body for the instructional division of the school system. Next in line of descent comes the Central Curriculum Council, which is made up of administrators, supervisors, principals, teachers, and lay representatives of the community. It has as its function the formulation of city-wide curriculum policies. Various study groups and special committees are set up by this council for the purpose of undertaking special studies and planning experimental programs.

In addition to this arrangement, several committees consisting of principals and teachers are assigned responsibility for working out policies and regulations of a specific nature. The Institute Council, in point, plans teacher institute programs with the superintendent. The Salary Evaluating Committee and the Non-Certificated Employees Advisory Council make recommendations on questions of experience credit and salaries. Correspondingly, the nurses, cafeteria managers, and teachers in different subject fields have their own committees for the initiation of policies and the protection of their own vested interests.

Two other councils have also been provided in this organization. They are the Classroom Teachers' Council and the Educational Council. Representatives to the former are elected by the teachers on a district basis. They carry complaints, suggestions, and recommendations from the teachers of the schools they represent to the council meetings. The minutes of these meetings are published and posted on the bulletin board of each school. The Educational Council operates in very much the

same way, except that its members are appointed by the officers of the Teachers' Association and the Principals' Club. Policies having to do with the welfare of the entire staff are discussed by this council.

In this extensive arrangement, teachers are permitted to serve on only one central office committee, but they may serve on other committees in their building. This regulation was adopted to avoid too much committee work on the part of those teachers whose competency and leadership are always in demand. All teachers are kept acquainted, however, with new policy developments by being supplied with the minutes of meetings where policies are made and special digests and handbooks containing current information on changes that have taken place.

The beginning teacher should be aware of the fact that several other types of system-wide organization are possible besides those described above. In some types the central or representative council serves as a co-ordinating agency for activities of special committees and individual building units. In other types the central council is the policy-forming group with the subsidiary committees undertaking such study and research as may be assigned to them. Experience has shown that, no matter what form of organization may be adopted, it is wise to limit the number of administrators who may sit on the central council or serve as members of committees. Their presence tends often to minimize the contributions that teachers would otherwise make. It has likewise been discovered that a preponderance of committees may adversely affect the smooth functioning of the organization and destroy its sense of unity. But the primary factor underlying the successful operation of any plan of organization is a desire on the part of every teacher and administrator to make democracy work.

PRACTICAL DIFFICULTIES

It is unlikely that the vast majority of teachers and administrators would deny their faith in democracy. They have a strong conviction regarding the worth of democratic ideals and readily subscribe to the value of democratic procedures in the

administration of our social institutions. Though they frequently differ in their interpretation of what the democratic process means, they have in common a desire to see democracy work. Yet when the effort is made to translate the true spirit of democracy into practice difficulties arise at once. Some fail to recognize democracy when it is before them, whereas others are uncertain that they want it after it has been achieved. As a consequence, several practical limitations lie in the way of making teacher participation in school administration function effectively.

Lack of Leadership

Perhaps the most fundamental limitation is the lack of administrative leadership. Too frequently superintendents and principals do not understand what is involved in democratic leadership. Because they have been granted certain executive powers by the board of education, they look upon their position as one of authority *over* other people and fail to see that the centralization of their position lends itself to working *with* others for the accomplishment of common purposes—a process through which policies, plans, and programs may be developed.

Any administrator who wishes to exercise democratic leadership tries, among other things, to encourage teachers to take initiative in solving their own problems. He is constantly providing opportunities for them to contribute fully to the formulation of plans leading to better instructional programs. Through group discussion procedures, channels are created for the free flow of ideas and the exchange of opinions regarding the desirability of existing policies. Administrative responsibility is shared with individuals and groups in keeping with their ability to handle it and increased in scope as they become more competent. He never fails to recognize the worth of the contributions made by members of the staff, both individually and collectively, for he is deeply interested in utilizing wholesome incentives for stimulating continuous growth in service. Decisions are not made without bringing them into his confidence and their judgments are held in greater importance than his own. At all times

he strives to exemplify in his relations with others and through the procedures he follows how democracy may be made a practical and profitable way of life.

The Problem of Shared Authority

Even in schools where superintendents and principals favor teacher participation in administration, they are unwilling to accept the idea of shared authority. They may organize administrative councils to which teachers are appointed or elected as representatives of the faculty. Sometimes only those problems are discussed which originate with the superintendent or principal, all others being prohibited. Not infrequently, the teacher representatives are invited to make suggestions, but never to reach decisions on questions of policy or program, since this right is reserved exclusively for those in authority. In a number of instances, the free exchange of ideas is encouraged and teachers are allowed to present suggestions, express reactions and to participate fully in the decisions that are reached. The decisions, however, mean very little because the superintendent or the principal retains the right to veto any decision that is made. In doing so, they come back to the legal concept that final decisions must be made by those upon whom responsibility is fixed.

Somewhat analogous to this situation is that found among student councils. They are granted rights in many schools to make decisions concerning student affairs, but their decisions are always subject to review by the principal and possible veto if they are contrary to his judgment as to what is best for the school. It is not to be wondered, then, why pupils lose their enthusiasm for student government; if their decisions do not make any real difference in the life of the school, there is no vital reason for making them.

Teachers are no different from students in this respect because they experience the same sense of futility in schools where their efforts can be wiped out at will by administrators. It would probably be better to forego any attempt at democratic school administration unless those in charge are willing, on a gradually increasing scale, to share their authority with the faculty.

Teacher Attitudes

A good many teachers are hesitant about entering into the administrative affairs of the school. They recognize their own lack of training and experience in administration without realizing that this background can be acquired, for all practical purposes, through their participation in the study and discussion of administrative problems. Second, they are inclined to view committee service as extra work beyond the normal teaching load which they consider too heavy. This is a real factor that must be taken into account in providing opportunities for teacher participation. It can be met by limiting committee assignments to major issues and leaving small details and minor decisions to the administration. The classroom schedules of teachers who undertake important responsibilities can also be reduced proportionately as a satisfactory means of meeting this problem. Next, there are many teachers who do not wish to accept responsibility, if it can be avoided. They prefer to have administrators make the necessary decisions and answer for them. Fourth, some teachers have difficulty in thinking about school matters outside the field of their own special interests. This is to be expected, since schools have been organized for administrative purposes into areas of specialization and teachers have had few occasions to think beyond the limits of their own subjects or grades. Finally, the outstanding practical difficulty lying in the way of greater socialization and constructive participation is the misunderstanding of teachers with regard to the meaning of democratic procedures. Conditioned as many of them have been by an authoritarian pattern of living, they have little appreciation or understanding of democratic human relationships. Their viewpoints in education have crystallized over the years to a point of intolerance toward those who think differently from the way they do. It is hard for many of them to extend respect to fellow teachers or to have confidence in the integrity of others who wish to make democracy a vital part of living. They prize individualism much more than collective social action and disparage efforts that are made to unite the school into a func-

tioning whole. Their resistance to change, especially along lines they do not understand, is a discouraging element in schools where many teachers and administrators are trying to make the ideals of democracy a reality. It must be remembered that growth in democratic skills and understandings comes slowly, but that they can be acquired under the influence of competent leaders who recognize the educational implications of the problem.

RELATED READINGS

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An analytical discussion of the meaning of democracy in school administration, points of view regarding it, and the legal issues involved.

Carr, William G., "Efficiency Through Democratic Administration," *Journal of the National Education Association*, 31:83-4. March, 1942.

States briefly some of the bases underlying democratic school administration and cites some examples of democratic administration in practice.

Changing Conceptions in Educational Administration, Chap. IV. Forty-fifth Yearbook, Part II. National Society for the Study of Education. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1946.

A sound exposition of the learning problem involved in bringing about the democratic participation of teachers in the administration of the school.

Corey, Stephen M., "Co-operative Staff Work," *School Review*, 52:336-345. June, 1944.

An explanation of how democratic procedures may be carried on, the principles that guide group activity, and the responsibility of the administrator are outlined in some detail in this article.

Dannelly, Clarence M., "Headaches in Democratic Administration," *School Executive*, 64:46. August, 1945.

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Koopman, G. Robert, Miel, Alice, and Misner, Paul J., *Democracy in School Administration*. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., 1943.

The central purpose of this book is to show how schools can translate democracy into action. The theory of democratic administration is carefully explained and the practical illustrations that are given leave little doubt about the way democracy can be made to work.

Lynch, James M., "Leadership and the Development of Democratic Administration," *American School Board Journal*, 114:19-20. June, 1947.

A historical treatment of the conditions out of which various forms of leadership have emerged in the past and the problem of leadership in schools today.

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An elementary school tried with success an experiment in group administration. Three teachers look over the functions of the principal, each handling a separate phase of administration.

Reavis, William C. (Editor), *Democratic Practices in School Administration*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1939.

This volume contains a series of papers setting forth the philosophy and the problems of democratic participation. Divided into five parts, it takes up the theory of democratic participation, the training of personnel, the organization of the school, the importance of democratic practices, and then gives a number of examples of democratic procedures used in certain school systems.

Rhodes, Alvin E., "Fundamentals of Democratic School Administration," *American School Board Journal*, 109:33-34. October, 1944.

The advantages and disadvantages of teacher participation are summarized in this article and the principles and methods of participation are explained.

Safer, Hugh M., "Principles of Democratic Personnel Relationships in Administration," *American School Board Journal*, 108:17-19. April, 1944.

Discusses nine principles derived from a study of the literature on democracy in school administration.

Trecker, Harleigh B., *Group Process in Administration*. New York: The Woman's Press, 1946.

A small book that contains a wealth of information on how democracy can function in administration. It points out clearly that participation by institutional and agency staffs is the soundest way to help people grow, develop initiative, and learn to accept responsibility.

Williams, O. S., "Administrative Activities in Which Teachers Participate Democratically," *American School Board Journal*, 105: 40-41. September, 1942.

This article presents a report on the extent to which six school systems carry on teacher participation in the administration of their educational programs.

Chapter 19

IMPROVING COMMUNITY LIFE

IT WAS previously pointed out that the traditional, subject-matter curriculum of the elementary and secondary schools emphasizes the learning of factual information and the development of habits and skills in preparation for future living.¹ Little attention, if any, is given in the traditional school to the immediate use of what is learned outside of the classroom itself or to the actual testing of knowledge in action. Because of the sterile nature of this curriculum, pupils are seldom brought face to face with reality or placed in situations where they must act upon the decisions they make.

In contrast, modern elementary and secondary schools construct their curriculums to a large extent around the personal and social problems of the learners and the communities in which they live. They are taught to recognize and define these problems and to use scientific procedures in seeking their solution. The learning process, however, is carried forward beyond this point to the actual application of knowledge to living or to the testing of ideas in practice. Every effort is made in these schools to bring about changes in the behavior of the individual which result in improved personal and social living.

The beginning teacher will be introduced in this chapter to the educational program of the community school where this type of curriculum is in operation. He will see how teachers in these schools work with pupils as well as the community and the results that they are able to achieve.

¹ Chapter 11.

THE COMMUNITY SCHOOL

A school is known as a *community school* when it is organized for educational purposes on both child and adult levels and when it undertakes a carefully planned series of activities related to the life of the community. Such a school is based upon a number of definite assumptions. It is believed, first of all, that all life is educative—that the experiences which an individual has from birth to death influence his every thought and action, hence they are educative. Whether he listens to the radio, sees a motion picture, or sits around the house, he is continuously undergoing experiences peculiar to the environment in which he finds himself at any given time. The nature of these experiences is related directly to the character of his conduct, especially when they recur frequently and leave vivid impressions. This being the case, it follows that the school as an institution concerned primarily with human growth and development should seek to control or modify conditions detrimental to human welfare or to improve upon those which contribute to desirable personal and social living.

In order to do this, the school must join forces with other institutions and agencies having an educative function to perform, because the task is too large for any one institution to handle by itself. It should provide the leadership needed for developing comprehensive and constructive programs through which the efforts of all interested groups can be co-ordinated and brought to bear upon the solution of pressing community problems. It must work with parents, social agencies, governmental bureaus, business organizations, social and religious groups, and all others who are concerned with community life. It must take advantage of the opportunities afforded by community organizations through which pupils may gain profitable experiences in dramatics, music, fine arts, and religion. It must work consistently with individuals and organized groups trying to reduce juvenile delinquency, traffic hazards, and unhealthful living conditions. It must lend wholehearted assistance to sound campaigns for the support of public agencies, improved housing, and the devel-

opment of neighborhood recreational facilities. In short, the school must become a vital force in bringing about conditions in the community that are favorable to the growth and development of children as well as adults.

At the same time, the school must gear its curriculum to the personal and social problems of boys and girls as another means of facilitating their adjustment to life and helping them to become increasingly more sensitive to the conditions under which living takes place. The position is taken in the community school that this can best be accomplished when pupils are taught how to apply scientific procedures to the solution of these problems and when they learn how to act upon conclusions reached or to test the validity of the hypotheses formulated. Where this is done the major function of the school is still to educate the young, as Tyler has pointed out, "but opportunity for young people to analyze significant community problems and to participate in the attack upon these problems is provided in order to train youth and at the same time to make an immediate contribution to community life through the product of youth's efforts."² From the early grades through the senior high school, the curriculum should contain an expanding series of opportunities for pupils to deal with realistic issues that demand, at each maturity level, higher forms of co-operative, social action.

The beginning teacher will soon discover, if he has not already done so, that helping boys and girls to live democratically is difficult to accomplish. At times he will be discouraged by the slowness of their learning and disturbed by the errors of their judgment. Like many critics, he will deplore the loss of time and the fumbling pattern of their action and wish that he might get things done with efficiency and dispatch. But he cannot forget for an instant that democracy cannot be achieved unless it is made an integral part of everyday thoughts and actions. Above all, perhaps, he must exemplify in his own conduct what

² Ralph W. Tyler, "The Responsibility of the School for the Improvement of American Life," *The School Review*, LII: 401. September, 1944.

democracy stands for and why it is a superior way of life. Further, he must seize every opportunity in the school and community for pupils to gain experiences in learning how to work together, in developing common purposes, in planning courses of action, in putting plans into operation, and in appraising their effectiveness.

In all that is done to improve personal and social living, both inside and outside of the school, the teacher occupies a pivotal position for stimulating constructive action, providing competent leadership, and taking an active part in the life of the community.

COMMUNITY STUDY

In summarizing the preceding section, it will be helpful for the beginning teacher to think of the community school as one that undertakes a definite program for the improvement of community life, and as a school that uses the community for the education of young people. The term *community*, as used here, refers in a narrow sense to the natural geographic area served by the local school system—an area having its own physical setting, institutions, social agencies, businesses and industries, customs, traditions, and cultural problems. In a broad sense, it must be recognized that no one community unit is self-sufficient but that each is dependent on the products of other areas and the services of other individuals and agencies located sometimes at great distances away. Thus in dealing with the community, the teacher must help children to understand the interdependence and interrelatedness of communities on local, regional, national, and international scales.

Any sound program for the improvement of community life or the utilization of the educational resources found in the community must be based upon a thorough understanding of what the community is like. A study of the community should be started with children in the early elementary grades and continued without interruption through the senior high school. It should take its point of orientation in the neighborhood surrounding the school and expand outwardly to include eventually the world community.

Community Data

Many teachers and administrators who appreciate the value of knowing their communities and who wish to undertake a community-study program are uncertain about what they should look for in analyzing the physical and social scene. As an answer to this question, Cook describes a series of possibilities from which their choices can be made.

To the educational sociologist, the community is first of all a population aggregate. People are viewed in lump-mass categories, such as numbers, density, age-sex ratios, ethnic origins, vitality, socio-economic status, and migrations to and from the area. Once these items are made a matter of record, the community might be conceived as a physical structure . . . a student would map this social landscape—the business section, street plan, land uses and values, service agencies and institutions. Turning from the “center” he would determine the pull of stores, schools, churches, etc., chart these outer rims of the community, show traffic flow, land uses, dwellings, and neighborhoods. If one has never seen such statistics put in final form by an art class, he still has something to live for.

So far we have dealt with tangible realia, the furniture of the earth that can be counted, weighed, and measured. Our real interest, however, is in things that have no faces, the great sea of abstractions. . . . At the start, one might regard the community as a cultural world, an “atmosphere” of customs and traditions, a net work of human associations, a system of caste and class relations. If, now, the scene were set in motion, inquiry would center on basic life activities—making a living, building a home, keeping well, using leisure, and all the rest.

Somewhere along the line, the student would center attention on community members as social beings, especially the process by which young people are inducted into adulthood. He would want to know the groups that persons run around with, the goods and services they consume, the ideas and beliefs they treasure, the conduct codes they practice, the roles and statuses they seek, the shape of things they fear, and the effects of it all on personal growth and well-being. Both short- and long-range social trends would loom large because they reflect

the impact of environing society. Out of these come the clashes in basic social values that make our social problems, which in turn provide a stimulus to co-ordinated community action, such as the organization of a community council.³

Though community study may prove to be extremely interesting to the teacher, he must remember that it is not an end in itself. It is but a means for collecting valuable information and developing insights and understandings that enable the school and its personnel to render greater service to the community and, at the same time, to utilize the resources that are found there for educational purposes.

Study Procedures

Another question frequently asked by teachers and administrators is that of how to go about making a study of the community. Some schools have found it valuable to begin such a study by having pupils learn how to draw maps. They may start by mapping the school grounds or the routes taken on field trips to places of interest in the community. Sometimes a larger mapping project is used like mapping the neighborhood about the school. Eventually pupils are encouraged to construct accurate base maps of the school district on which there are shown land utilization, population, assessed valuations, roads, recreational centers, and other facts about the community.

Questionnaires have also been used successfully in starting community study. For example, on one type of questionnaire secondary school pupils are asked to state their opinions about opportunities for youth in the local area and what they may look forward to after graduation from high school. A study of the returns from these questionnaires inevitably leads to a series of meaningful investigations of opportunities in the community. In another instance, community study may grow out of some current condition in which pupils have an interest, let us say an epidemic of diphtheria. A teacher might easily raise the question of how the school could work with the community

³Lloyd Allen Cook, "Methods of Community Study," *The School and the Urban Community*, pp. 202-3. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1942.

in controlling the spread of the disease. This might lead to contacts with public health officials, the study of regulations for the control of communicable diseases, the establishment of an immunization clinic in the school, the exploration of all public health services and several other phases of the problem.

A more formalized procedure for community study is outlined by Cook who suggests that the following steps be adopted:

1. Defining the problem for study, including the kinds and amount of data to be collected, the time and place.
2. Making the study forms, such as a questionnaire, schedule, or scale, pretesting and revising if necessary.
3. Working out a scoring plan, involving table forms, tally sheets, and individual or group scoring procedures.
4. Administering the study instruments to a selected sample, culling for defective cases and supplementing the data.
5. Tabulating data, scored as a rule for total reactions, basic variables (age, sex, etc.), separate items and cases.
6. Making final tables, graphs, charts, and other visual forms to reveal meanings and interrelations.
7. Planning and writing the final report for the kind of readers for whom the report was intended.
8. Securing a hearing for, and action on, the findings and recommendations of the completed project.⁴

In using this outline, Cook recommends that a sampling technique be employed, either a random or a purposive sampling. Otherwise there is a danger that pupils and teachers may undertake more than they are able to accomplish. He points out also that there is a similar danger when teachers and pupils regard the sampling method as a way of saving time and labor with the result that it is used carelessly.

Values of Community Study

The teacher who engages in community study soon comes to realize that it has many values. For pupils, he finds that these values generally consist of (1) a keener understanding of social

⁴Lloyd Allen Cook, *op. cit.*, p. 204.

facts; (2) a more sympathetic attitude toward other people; (3) a desire to take a more active part in community affairs; (4) a recognition of certain forces that shape personal and social living; (5) a greater sensitivity to the need for accepting social responsibilities; (6) a deeper appreciation of the complex nature of society; (7) a more definite understanding of subject matter taught in school and its relation to life; (8) a more intelligent concern for democratic institutions, their functions and contributions; (9) new interests in occupational fields; (10) recognition of important community problems; (11) a better utilization of cultural opportunities; and (12) a more wholesome and vital concern for the welfare of the entire community.

The same set of values is achieved by the classroom teacher who participates in community study. In addition, he is better able to (1) relate his teaching to the life of the community, (2) draw upon a rich source of instructional aids and materials, (3) correlate various fields of learning, (4) undertake a more effective guidance program in regular classroom teaching, (5) cooperate with community groups and agencies interested in school and community improvement, (6) practice better public relations, and (7) fit the curriculum to the personal and social needs of pupils. The importance of these values will be emphasized in the next section of this chapter.

THE USE OF COMMUNITY RESOURCES

For purposes of this discussion, the resources of the community can most effectively be utilized by the teacher in curriculum planning, enriching learning materials, and undertaking community-service projects. Each of these uses will be discussed in some detail in the paragraphs which follow.

Curriculum Planning

The curriculum of the community school is designed or developed around personal and social problems occurring in the daily experiences of children. These problems grow out of situations found in school, in the neighborhood, in the community, on the playground, at home, or in a dozen other places.

Using these problems as centers, learning units are constructed in which the activities selected by pupils, under teacher guidance, lead to a partial or complete solution of the problem, though in the study of some problems acquiring a basic understanding of the factors involved satisfies the major requirement of the unit. Correlative to the purpose of the unit, however, teachers help pupils to gain experiences that enable them to understand other people better; gain competence in face-to-face relations as well as group and intergroup relations; grow in ability to deal intelligently with environmental conditions involving industrialization, economic pressures, special-interest groups, natural phenomena, social practices, and cultural issues; and acquire skill in the application of scientific techniques to the solution of problems.

In utilizing the common problems of community life for curriculum purposes, it is interesting to note that no sharp line of distinction can be drawn between personal and community living. It is true that the difference between one and the other may be established for the sake of emphasis and discussion in classifying the problems studied. But Mackenzie has pointed out correctly that "as the individual learns through the experiences which he has, the experiences which may seem to be almost entirely personal influence his community living and those which are essentially community experiences affect his personal living."⁵

The beginning teacher may wish to know how a curriculum of this kind is organized. There is no one answer to this question. The tendency seems to be along lines of the core curriculum both in the elementary and secondary schools. The core arrangement disregards completely the typical subject-matter organization on grounds that it has very little to contribute to the immediate improvement of personal and social living. It follows instead a developmental sequence of learning units built around either areas of living or personal and social problems. In order to make this curriculum as functional as possible, the teachers

⁵ Gordon N. Mackenzie, "High School Education for Better Personal and Social Living," *The Bulletin* of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, 30:21. May, 1946.

who develop it work closely with parents and other interested laymen in defining significant problems and determining ways and means for using the community as a laboratory whenever its use is superior to the experience that can be provided within the school.

Enriching Learning Materials

The school curriculum, whether it is organized traditionally or functionally, can be enriched and vitalized when learning materials are drawn wisely from the resources of the community. Printed materials represent one kind of resource that can be drawn upon in the community. These include books, bulletins, pamphlets, leaflets, magazines, newspapers, legal documents, financial statements, letters, and various kinds of written and printed records. The bulk of this material, either historical or current, is readily accessible to teachers and pupils; it covers virtually every phase and problem of living which a group in school would be interested in at any given time.⁶ Difficulty is experienced occasionally in using it, however, because it is unsuited to the reading levels of certain children.

Human beings of all ages residing in the community constitute another valuable source of learning. They are able to speak, display, or demonstrate some special interest or talent which otherwise could not be experienced at first hand by pupils. Some can describe their fields of occupational service more realistically than any description found in a textbook. Others can discuss travel experience, foreign culture, hobbies, current events, or illustrate how certain processes are carried on in the manufacturing of common commodities. The possibilities here are almost unlimited, and any teacher who plans carefully with pupils how these persons may be used can tap a rich source of learning materials.

Somewhat similar in technique is that of pupil interviews with selected individuals in the community. Through this means, authoritative answers are sought to questions arising in the class-

⁶ See Edward G. Olsen, *School and Community*, Chap. 4. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1945; also, the H. W. Wilson *Vertical File Service Catalog* for a list of free and inexpensive materials.

room. Careful preparation is made by pupils prior to undertaking an interview so as to secure satisfactory results and to create favorable attitudes toward the school. Reports made to the class by those pupils who conducted the interview are followed up in many profitable ways.

Strong emphasis is being laid at present upon the classroom use of audio and visual aids. These aids include phonograph records, transcriptions, radio broadcasts, dramatic presentations, graphs, charts, maps, globes, models, pictures, film strips, and motion pictures. They are regarded, because of their appeal to the senses of hearing and sight, as highly efficient means for teaching knowledges, understandings, attitudes, and appreciations. Their effectiveness has been demonstrated not only in classroom teaching, but also in the training of officers and men in the armed services of the nation during the recent war.

Though public elementary and secondary schools now use audio-visual aids in guiding the learning activities of pupils, they limit themselves, for the most part, to films borrowed from educational agencies or rented from commercial distributors, to a narrow assortment of maps, and to some forms of pictorial material found within the building or supplied free upon request by business and industrial concerns. They have not yet learned to use the vast reservoir of such materials in their own communities. For example, schools could use the countless variety of items available for exhibit purposes; from parents and laymen who have developed interesting and worth-while hobbies; out of school plays and radio programs related to subjects and problems of study; from maps supplied by gasoline filling stations and governmental bureaus; and from important charts and graphs appearing in daily newspapers and current periodicals.

Any teacher who takes advantage of these resources and learns to use them correctly will find that they make almost an incalculable contribution to instruction. They can be used not only at all age-grade levels of the school system but also fitted into any teaching situation just as naturally as printed materials. In addition, their cost is comparatively slight, their subjects unlimited, and their values high in imparting information, clarifying

difficult and abstract concepts, stimulating thought, sharpening observation, creating interest, and satisfying individual differences.

Field trips or excursions are another means for utilizing community resources. Through this method, pupils and teachers come directly into contact with the realities of life by actually going to some place of special interest where they can study at first hand the facts related to a problem or subject of study in school. In the elementary grades, a visit to a neighboring railroad station might be taken for the purpose of vitalizing something that has been or is being studied, or it might be used to stimulate interest as preparation for beginning a new unit of work. Perhaps a discussion of family life would require a survey of food costs in nearby grocery stores. A journey to the airport could be used for satisfying questions involving the duties of a pilot, radio man, weatherman, ticket seller, and others. At the secondary level, field trips might be planned to courts, police stations, and city councils in connection with an investigation of law enforcement. A large industrial plant could be used to illustrate concretely the meaning of mass production, and a trip to the local newspaper would supply an abundance of information useful in the study of communication. In fact, there is no subject in the school curriculum that cannot be related to some phase of life in the community.

According to Kindred and Stephenson, however, "the extent of the educational returns resulting from a field trip will depend upon four principal things: (1) the preliminary arrangements; (2) the care taken in teacher-pupil planning; (3) the procedure followed during its progress; and (4) the terminating activities which bring the project to a close."⁷ If each of these considerations is fully satisfied, then the value of field trips for pupils is

"to enlarge their concept of the school, cause them to look upon the community as a laboratory where truth may be discovered and where they will see that not all learning is found between the covers of books. Moreover, a field trip gives them

⁷L. W. Kindred and O. W. Stephenson, "The Technique of the Field Trip," *Social Education*, 5:21. January, 1941.

opportunity to develop ability in observation, to do some scientific thinking and to make valid deductions from the evidence of things heard and seen. They are brought into contact with reality, their imaginations are stimulated by the concrete, and the things they have read and thought about in their classroom become more vivid. The discussions they carry on, the writing they do, the dramatizations they engage in, and the many other activities they perform, provide worthwhile experiences and self-expression and contribute much to the values already named.”⁸

The basic principle of learning by direct experience has been extended even beyond the scope of the field trip by means of camps or out-of-door educational programs. Schools in various sections of the country have acquired camp sites and facilities for making out-of-door education an important part of their curriculum. Some camps are located within walking distance of the school building, others are several miles away. A number of them operate continuously throughout the school year, a few on a 12-months’ basis, and several during the summer months. In many cases they are equipped to handle children 24 hours a day.

Without exception, the camping program is directed at meeting the needs, interests, and problems peculiar to young people. At the same time, it is designed to provide a variety of experiences in democratic group living. Through reading literature on out-of-door education, or even better still by visiting school camps, the beginning teacher will soon reach the conclusion that the learnings that come to children in this way are as varied as life itself. They are forced by circumstances to deal directly with problems of health, recreation, social organization, self-government, housing, safety, conservation, and the like. Furthermore, the outdoors may be used as a laboratory for investigations of natural phenomena and the study of natural resources.

Finally, the enrichment of learning can take place through a formal or informal program of work experience. In formal programs arrangements are made whereby the student divides

⁸ *Ibid.*

his school day between attendance at classes and work outside of school, with or without compensation. Examples of work-experience programs are commonly found in the fields of agriculture, home economics, trades, commercial and distributive education. On the informal basis, pupils gain many valuable experiences working after school and during vacation periods at home or in various business and industrial establishments. Serious efforts are made in formal work-experience programs to relate classroom study to common employment problems so that both sides of the school day are integrated functionally. Unfortunately, few schools have tried to help pupils understand and interpret the meaning of experiences gained through after-school and vacation employment or to tie this experience into the regular curriculum. There are indications, however, that thought is being given to the place and importance of such employment and that some provision will be made for it in the future.

Investigations of school-work programs support their inclusion in the secondary school curriculum. The findings show that the vocational orientation of young people takes place in a shorter period of time; many find themselves through this means who might otherwise flounder for years. A new value is placed upon classroom instruction because it is related to employment and has an application that pupils can understand. The same attitude toward the acquisition of salable skills and the development of desirable work habits takes place for the first time with many boys and girls. They come also to appreciate the meaning of human relations and the need for living harmoniously with other people. These are lessons in living which have always been difficult to teach in the conventional instructional program.

Community Service Projects

In addition to utilizing the community for instructional purposes as outlined above, schools are deeply concerned with the contributions that pupils are able to make to the improvement of life in the community. The activities undertaken by pupils for this purpose are classified as service projects. A few ex-

amples will be cited to illustrate how these projects have been beneficial to the community.

Myers describes a service project on housing which was undertaken by a social studies class in the Senior High School of Quincy, Illinois.⁹ The class started its project by reviewing motion pictures dealing with housing. This activity was followed by discussions leading to the collecting of pertinent resource materials for study and reference use. Outside authorities were brought into the classroom to talk about housing problems and supply information requested by the class. After this period of orientation had been completed, it was decided that a survey should be made of a part of the city, both for the experience it would provide and the data it would enable the class to place in the hands of the local housing council. Accordingly, a resolution was drafted—with the backing of the mayor—and presented to the city council from whom the approval for the survey was secured.

Details for making the survey were carefully worked out and the public was informed fully through the local press about the nature and purpose of the survey before it actually got under way. As information was collected, a considerable portion of it was recorded graphically on maps, and motion pictures were taken showing each step of the project from the start to the finish. Upon completion of the study parents and other interested citizens were invited to go over the findings and to acquaint themselves with the housing problems the class had uncovered.

As a result of this project two definite steps were taken leading to the improvement of housing conditions. First, the federal government accepted the survey maps as proof in part of the need for a housing and planning board in the community. Second, the city was able to get a federal loan of a million and a quarter dollars for the construction of 250 new housing units.

In writing about service projects, Epler points out that examples of teachers and schools co-operating with the community are not confined to any one area.

⁹Neil F. Myers, "The School Serves the Community," *The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, 26:97-101. February, 1942.

A larger consolidated school in the South located in the open country, has similarly supplied the leadership which has re-made the environment. The teachers and students carried on a soil conservation program which not only supplied information as to what to do but sent the boys to the farms to plan and carry on the work. The school publishes the only community newspaper and has helped the farmers to establish a cooperative mill. The high school chemistry class makes such products as tooth powder and face powder which are distributed through the students' own co-operative store. Nearly all of the school curriculum is based upon the needs of the community and its individual members.¹⁰

Such projects afford excellent opportunities for working with community agencies. In order to co-ordinate the work of the school with the programs of outside institutions and agencies, it is necessary for teachers and administrators to understand the objectives of these agencies and the nature of their services. They should be conversant with the work of the boy scouts, girl scouts, Junior Red Cross, welfare agencies, health agencies and clinics, county agricultural offices, patriotic organizations, labor unions, church and religious groups, service clubs, private charities, and many others operating in the community. Where successful service projects have been undertaken by pupils, an examination of these projects shows rather conclusively that teachers (1) are well acquainted with actual conditions in the local community, (2) possess a detailed knowledge of outside agencies—their purposes, methods, and programs—and understand how these groups and organizations may be used democratically for achieving common objectives, (3) take leadership essential to the co-ordination of service programs, (4) undertake projects that conform to local needs and conditions, (5) provide for participation of both children and adults, and (6) share the credit for accomplishments with all who were participants.

¹⁰ Stephen E. Epler, *The Teacher, The School, The Community*, p. 2. Washington: American Council on Education, 1941.

THE SCHOOL AS A COMMUNITY CENTER

A comprehensive community-school program includes provision for the public use of the school-plant facilities and the development of various activities to meet the needs and interests of the entire community. By opening buildings to the public after school hours and during vacation periods, and by taking leadership in encouraging the community to build its own program for better living, the school functions as a community center. In Norris, Tennessee, for example, where the school was planned as a community center, the records for a 12-month period ending in June, 1944, showed that the following groups and organizations used the school-plant facilities regularly: Norris Religious Fellowship, Intermediate Fellowship, Junior Fellowship, Norris Choir, Sunday School, Church School, Town Council, Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, Adult Basketball League, American Legion, Post-war Forum Lecture Series, Election Board, Red Cross Surgical Dressing Unit and the Baby Tenders.¹¹ In addition, the school was used by the Parent-Teacher Association, Education Committee of the Town Council, Advisory Committee on Education for the Norris School, Cannery Committee, Recreation Committee, Woodworking Committee and community groups brought together for the discussion of proposed changes in the school program. Besides using school facilities for different group meetings and projects, adults attended classes in gardening, canning, farm shop and repair of machinery, woodworking, foreign languages, and typing. They also came to the school for parent-teacher conferences, immunization clinics, a dental clinic, the physical examination of students, special school assemblies, athletic events, and musical programs.

The extent to which the school at Norris has been used as a community center probably exceeds common practice. However, it represents a pattern which is growing rapidly in Ameri-

¹¹ Orin B. Groff, "The School as the Community's Meeting Place," *School Executive*, 64:65-68. November, 1944.

can education and which will be discussed here for the benefit of the beginning teacher.

Community Meetings

A simple and effective use of the school plant and its facilities is that of community meetings. Here different groups may assemble for the purpose of following their own special interests or for dealing with community problems in which they have a common concern. Groups wishing to use the school in an average-size community for public and private meetings might include the boy scouts, girl scouts, parent-teacher association, Red Cross, League of Women Voters, hobby clubs, art clubs, dramatic clubs, musical organizations, dance groups, community council, forum and discussion associations. Because of their size, some would only require a small amount of space, while others, due to the popular nature of their programs, would need large assembly rooms, auditoriums, or gymnasiums.

To accommodate various groups, older buildings are being made over as far as possible and new buildings are being erected with the community in mind as much as the pupils in regular classes. Modern plant design calls for a division of public use and school use by arranging classrooms at one end of a corridor and gymnasiums, auditoriums, cafeterias, and assembly or study rooms at the other end, with public entrances leading directly to the facilities in greatest demand. It is true that problems arise in connection with public use of the school buildings, but these problems are seldom serious if community groups share in the development of policies pertaining to their use and feel that they have a responsibility for the maintenance and protection of the plant facilities.

The Use of Shop Facilities

Aside from its use for community meetings, the school serves as a center for adults who are permitted to use metal and wood shop facilities for leisure-time interests, home mechanics, and the repair of tools and power equipment. Limited space and

equipment factors preclude the development of this type of program in some schools, but the majority having shops do not face this problem. If conducted under the helpful supervision of trained and competent personnel, the informal shop program makes it possible for interested persons to engage in such hobbies as art metal work, cabinetmaking, plastics, silkscreen and block printing, and ceramics.

Along with the pursuit of hobbies, shop facilities can be opened to the public for home mechanics. People welcome the chance to bring vacuum cleaners, clocks, screens, storm sashes, furniture, and various other household equipment to the school for maintenance and repair. They are especially appreciative of the help and suggestion given by those in charge of the shops and enthusiastic about the thoughtfulness of school officials in making this service available. The same reaction is evident in schools where adults are taught how to care for their automobiles, lawn mowers, outboard motors, farm machinery, and tools used in home workshops and gardens.

Adult Education Classes

The phrase *adult education* has been associated for a number of years with the idea of part-time and continuation schools maintained by public and private educational institutions for those in need of special training or having a particular purpose, such as the foreign born interested in becoming naturalized citizens, or young people who wish to complete their education by attending classes on a part-time basis. At present, adult education is conceived more broadly as any informal or formal plan for the education of adults and adolescents undertaken by an individual, group, agency, or institution in response to some need, interest, or purpose of those for whom it is planned. Although this definition excludes from consideration the continuous process of learning that goes on informally in daily living, it does not deny its existence or its value. When an individual is able to work out with success the problems that arise in employment, family life, and social relations, he is engaged in a learning process on an adult level.

In general, formal and informal plans of adult education are concerned with the continued growth and development of individuals and the improvement of their individual and social efficiency. More specifically, adult education breaks down into social, vocational, and avocational purposes. The social purpose recognizes the need for increasing the knowledge of adults so that they may be able to cope satisfactorily with personal and social problems and make a fuller contribution to our democratic way of life. The vocational purpose concerns the need for individual adjustment and improvement in salable skills and knowledge. The avocational purpose satisfies the individual desire for self-improvement, worthy use of leisure, and the right to engage in creative forms of activity. Together these purposes represent a far-reaching series of possibilities with great meaning in relation to the social functioning of a democratic people.

Some of these purposes can be satisfied through formal and informal classes; some through discussion groups, study clubs, and forums; some through the media of press, radio, motion pictures, and printed materials. Neighborhood groups, civic associations, community councils, and business organizations are other means available. The organizational problem is one of coordinating the activities of all groups and integrating their efforts as a part of a total, community educational program.

The careful development of adult education is strongly recommended by leaders in this field, especially when community groups may request a particular class or even set up classes for the benefit of their own members and anyone else who is interested in attending them. In schools offering formal programs in adult education, classes have been held in a variety of subjects, including bridge, drawing, painting, art appreciation, dressmaking, first aid, home nursing, mathematics, English, foreign languages, typing, shorthand, interior decorating, jewelry making, gardening, occupational therapy, photography, pottery, public speaking, salesmanship, woodcraft, and so on. On the informal side, several of these subjects have been scheduled without the presence of a regular teacher, because the groups concerned simply used the school as a center for their meetings and as a

place for sharing experiences. Such groups have likewise sponsored lecture series, public forums, discussions on public questions, musicals, community bands and orchestras. The success of these classes appears to turn on the educational leadership supplied to the community and the extent to which the community is encouraged to use the school as a convenient center for expressing its own interests.

Food Conservation

The use of school facilities for food preservation has become a practice in several sections of the country. Starting in Georgia about 1926, the canning and food conservation movement developed during the depression years and received further acceleration during the recent war when the need for conservation was great. It is now established as an outstanding feature of the community school.

The canning of food has grown in popularity to such a point in some communities that the regular facilities of the school are no longer adequate to meet demand. In Stephenson, Michigan, for example, a total of 6,000 jars of food, at a rate of 500 a day, were processed the first summer that the school was used as a center.¹² The next year the output increased to 16,000 cans and continued to increase until it was necessary to build a separate unit for this purpose alone. Today the Stephenson canning center "serves not only the village but the countryside for miles around. The 285 women, who, in 1945, used its facilities, turned out 30,000 cans of fruit, vegetables, and meats. It is expected that, with each succeeding year, the amount of food processed for home consumption will continue to increase."

The school is the logical place for canning, dehydrating, and quick freezing of food because of its location and ease of access to the people of the community. In addition to having essential electrical, water, and sewage facilities, it has vocational teachers who are trained to supervise and give assistance in this work. The actual equipment, however, needed for preparing and pre-

¹² *Help Yourself*, pp. 27-28. Bulletin No. 410. Lansing, Michigan; State Department of Public Instruction, 1947.

serving food should probably be located outside of the main school building because of the special factors that have to be considered in undertaking this work, such as odors, ventilation, flooring, drainage, safety, and sanitation. The tendency is now to construct separate buildings on the school grounds and to plan them for the processing of food. It is probable that the food preservation program will continue as an outstanding feature of the community-centered school.

Reading and Research

Among other needs in any community are those related to reading and research. Individuals need a place where they can go to satisfy certain of their interests and find answers to many of their problems. This is what a community school library attempts to do. Organized to serve children, youth, and adults, the community school library generally represents a co-operative undertaking on the part of the school and other institutions and agencies concerned with human welfare. Its physical layout and reference materials are based upon the recognized needs and interests of the community. Care is taken, especially in rural and semirural areas, to pool existing resources and to avoid the overlapping of services and the unnecessary expenditures of funds for materials and supplies.

Where community-school libraries have been organized and placed in operation, they are used by individuals and groups for many different purposes. Parents turn to the library for help in working out problems of family life—child care, health, budgeting, interior decoration, recreation, and nutrition. Young people come there to find material on education, sex relations, life-work opportunities, social customs, clothing style and design, marriage, and so forth. It is used frequently for information people need in their work. Different agencies and organized groups find invaluable assistance in securing information related to their programs or the activities in which they are engaged. Beyond these uses, the community-school library serves many general purposes by aiding individuals to broaden their sphere of interests and keep abreast of the times. When the

brary is located in a community-centered school, there is little question about its being patronized by the community.

Recreation

Most cities and many towns and villages provide recreational programs and maintain playground facilities under the control of agencies other than the school. Although significant gains have been made in recreation during the last ten to fifteen years, existing provisions do not begin to meet the recreational needs of the majority of children, youth, and adults. Present programs are narrowly conceived for the most part, limited in scope of offerings, poorly located with reference to population densities, and given over almost completely to physical games and sports. They merely touch an uncharted area in recreation which could well be developed by the school working in co-operation with interested community groups.

Some idea of a comprehensive, community recreational program may be gained from the recommendations of Essex and Miles who believe that the indoor and outdoor facilities of the school should be used for an all-year recreation program. In their opinion, such a program should consist of the following types of activities:

- (1) games and sports, including athletics, group games, aquatics, hiking and skating;
- (2) social recreation, including parties, folk games, card games, and dancing;
- (3) arts and crafts, including woodcraft, beading, braiding, carving, drawing and sketching;
- (4) rhythms and dancing, including such activities as national and country dancing, fundamental rhythms, social dancing, tap, clog and the modern dance;
- (5) dramatics, including such activities as pageantry, puppetry, plays, short plays, and story telling;
- (6) music, including such activities as community singing, chorus, instrumental music clubs, and festivals;
- (7) woodcraft and nature lore, including such activities as shelter construction, outdoor cooking, outings, hiking, trailing, scouting, conservation, and camping.¹³

¹³ Don L. Essex and Caswell M. Miles, "Facilities for All-Year Recreation Programs," *School Executive*, 66:56. December, 1946.

The comprehensiveness of this recommendation may seem to be beyond the reach of a good many schools, yet there are numerous examples of schools where most of these activities are in progress.

COMMUNITY COUNCILS

It is a fundamental premise of democracy that intelligent community action is essential to its successful functioning. The need for a closer observance of this premise is apparent in one community after another where ineffectiveness of action and waste of effort characterizes the conduct of individuals and groups concerned with social and civic welfare. Each engages in some type of program, duplicating as it does the efforts of the others and often setting up competitive conditions that tend to separate rather than unify the forces for the improvement of community life. The solution of this problem requires the establishment of means through which the activities of all groups may be co-ordinated and their programs operated in accordance with sound procedures.

A plan for bringing about co-operative community action and the mobilization of community resources has been developed successfully in recent years. Known as the *community council* form of social organization, this plan unites for action the representatives of agencies and groups similar to those shown in Figure 41. Each council operates as a nonpartisan, nonprofit organization on a neighborhood basis in heavy population centers or by communities in small cities and towns. Since school people play a prominent part in initiating this form of social organization and supplying leadership for council actions, the new teacher would do well to acquaint himself with the nature of the council, its structure and basis of operation.

Characteristics of a Council

A community council may be described as a medium or form of organization through which representatives of government, civic groups, religious groups, social groups, business groups, fraternal groups, and interested citizens join forces for the purpose of promoting good conditions and eliminating poor conditions.

affecting community life. Functioning as a unit, members of the council analyze and define the needs and problems of the community. On the basis of their findings, a program is designed to produce the changes they consider necessary.

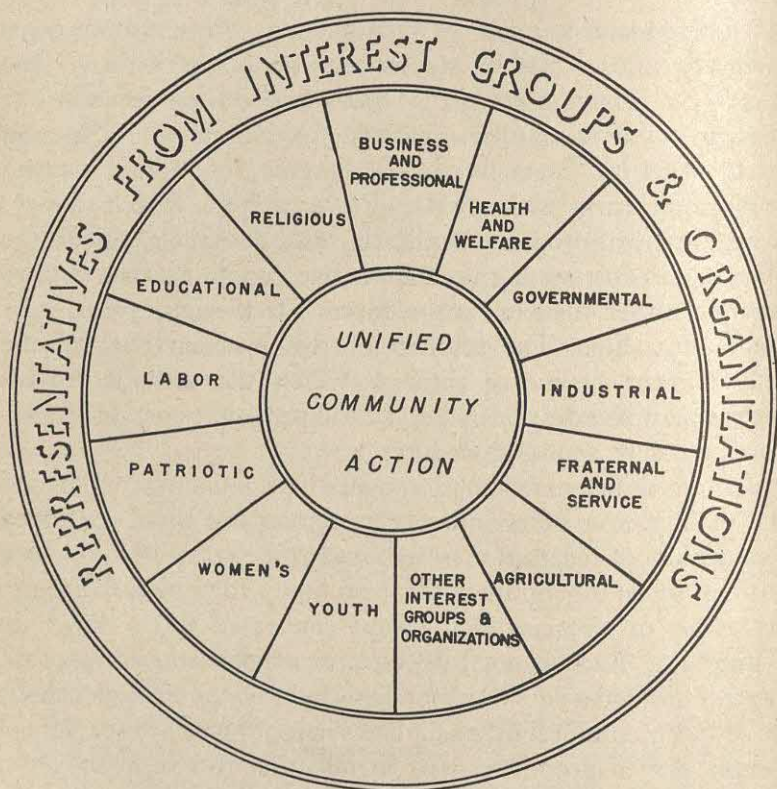


FIGURE 41. Typical Community Interest Groups.¹⁴

In some instances the council itself assumes direct responsibility for taking action, but, generally, it acts only as a counseling, co-ordinating, and planning body instead of a social agency engaged in carrying out a program. Practice has dictated the wisdom of assigning responsibilities for taking action to one or more member organizations most capable of meeting a given

¹⁴ Adapted from *Organizing a Community Council*, p. 7. Bulletin No. 330. Lansing, Michigan: State Department of Public Instruction, 1944.

problem because it falls in line with the purposes for which they exist. Since the needs and problems of communities differ widely, the program of each council will vary from place to place.

Purposes

The fundamental purpose of any community council is that of improving life within the community. Complementary to this end are several specific objectives that councils consider worthy of achievement. These objectives may be enumerated briefly as follows:

1. To provide means through which all community groups and interested persons may increase their awareness and understanding of community problems.
2. To provide a means through which community agencies and organized groups may co-ordinate their efforts and pool their resources for solving problems of community life.
3. To engage in careful, long-time planning, define current problems, and recommend courses of action to agencies and officials best equipped to handle these problems.
4. To encourage the undertaking of community projects that are too large or too difficult for a single group or agency to deal with.
5. To develop a spirit of civic mindedness on the part of everyone who lives in the community so that they may, through the medium of the council, create the conditions under which they wish to live.
6. To serve as a clearing house for organizations and agencies, thereby enabling them to work together on problems of common concern without duplicating or wasting effort.
7. To help improve the quality of existing community services.

Council Organization

A common plan of organization for a community council is shown in Figure 42. As presented in this diagram, the basic structure of a council is relatively simple. The representatives

of community-interest groups form the council. This group elects an executive committee consisting of a president or chairman, a secretary, and four or five additional members. The president presides at meetings of the council and chairs the executive committee meetings. It is his responsibility to see that as many members of the council participate in the meetings as possible and serve on the standing and special committees. He makes it a point to secure a decision on every problem brought

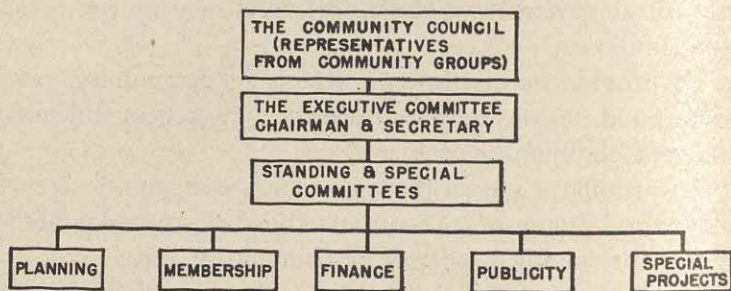


FIGURE 42. A Plan of Organization for a Community Council.

before the council and to extend full credit to each organization that carries out the requests of the council. He is assisted in much of his work by a secretary who keeps a record of each meeting, the reports presented, the votes taken, the assignments or appointments made, the questions raised, and the suggestions offered. The executive committee, on the other hand, plans in detail the business to be taken up at council meetings and considers what project should be undertaken, how they should be undertaken, and to whom the responsibility should be assigned. Its deliberations are reported to the council for approval before any action is started.

The Program

Before any program is officially undertaken by the council, several steps are followed in determining the needs of the community. Council members talk with neighbors, friends, and business associates regarding the needs of the community and

try to get their ideas about the problems regarded as being most important. They also make a point of contacting those in leadership in the community because of the influence they exert on public opinion. If the leaders are sympathetic to the council idea, there is a greater chance for its success. Also these individuals are close to the people of the community and know the conditions that should be changed from a popular point of view. In addition, an open community meeting or series of meetings is held for the purpose of discussing the council idea and getting suggestions about what the community would like to see done. Finally, a survey of the community is systematically undertaken and a program is outlined on the basis of its findings. Many councils have discovered that it is better to select only a few problems for study at one time rather than try to do something about all of them.

There are numerous examples of constructive work done by community councils. They have dealt successfully with questions of housing, recreation, city planning, safe and clean streets, modern school buildings, public parks, nursery schools, shopping centers, public health, boys' and girls' clubs, youth employment, adult education, summer camps, special community festivals, community libraries, and hundreds of others. Out of their work has come a new realization that the people of the community have within their hands the power to change living conditions and give to life the quality they desire.

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Contains several suggestions for developing a curriculum in which outside experience is provided.

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A clear statement of the nature and importance of the community council and how it operates.

Chapter 20

PRACTICING PUBLIC RELATIONS

IT HAS BEEN in comparatively recent years only that boards of education, school administrators, and teachers have become sensitive to the meaning and importance of public relations. Prior to the late 1920's, this phase of administration was regarded more or less as a routine activity. It was concerned principally with newspaper publicity. Stories were given to the press about school affairs, the most extensive coverage being in the field of extracurricular activities. The need for public relations was not realized until the depression years of the 1930's when schools became the target for attack by vested-interest groups bent on effecting economies in educational costs and corresponding reductions in the rate of school taxes. They demanded the elimination of many subjects and advocated a return to the 3 R's. That they succeeded to a remarkable extent in crippling the schools through budget reductions is an established fact. It is also a glaring reminder that similar groups will succeed again in using the schools for their own purposes unless educational leaders recognize the necessity of taking the community into their confidence and acquainting the people with the purposes, programs, and problems of public education.

When the schools turned to the public for backing against proposed retrenchments, parents and taxpayers turned a more sympathetic ear to the idea of saving dollars than of preserving educational values. They were influenced in their reactions by the high-pressure practices of lay groups who pointed out how economies might be effected and the benefits that would come to property owners at a time when they were undergoing

financial hardships. Although educational organizations started a vigorous movement to neutralize the influence of this propaganda, their efforts came somewhat late. Seldom, if ever before, had the public been taken into the confidence of the schools, nor did the people have at their disposal the facts that would enable them to make sound judgments. Even the rank and file of teachers were ill informed and unable to answer many elementary questions concerning educational problems and school costs. It was natural for public opinion to crystallize in favor of an economy program.

Some forward-looking administrators took their cue from the experiences of this period and went about the business of building public relations programs. The majority, it would seem, did not profit from the lesson these experiences taught; they continued to ignore the fact that in a democracy public institutions depend for their support upon the nature and quality of public opinion at all times. When faced with critical teacher shortages during the recent war and immediate postwar years, educators found that public response to the urgent need for increasing salaries and preventing further losses of competent instructional personnel came slowly. It was necessary for the situation to reach extremely serious proportions before people were sufficiently aroused to insist that local boards of education and state legislatures vote the funds required for revising salary schedules upward to meet rising costs of living. This matter is far from settled today and will no doubt continue to be troublesome for some time to come. It illustrates rather forcefully that the public does not yet appreciate fully the worth and value of the schools and that steps must be taken to bring about a more complete understanding of the function of education in a democracy.

As will be pointed out subsequently, the teacher is unquestionably the most important single factor in shaping public opinion and creating public confidence in the schools. It will be to his advantage to become familiar with the various aspects of public relations and the opportunities available for him to interpret the school to the community.

THE MEANING OF PUBLIC RELATIONS

It might be well to ask at this time what is meant by the term *public relations*. Does it mean trying to convince people by word of mouth that the local schools are doing an excellent job of educating the young? Or molding public opinion about the schools through a continuous series of articles in the daily newspaper? Or doing special stunts to attract attention? Or advertising in different ways the important things about the school and how modern teaching is done? Is it clever propaganda? The studied use of smiles, handshakes, and pats on the back? Or is it the techniques employed in a high-pressure campaign to float bonds for the construction of a new building? As a matter of fact, public relations is a number of things. In education, public relations "may be considered as those institutional activities which keep the institution aware of community opinion and needs and keep the people informed of the purpose, value, conditions, and needs of public education."¹ Stated somewhat differently, public relations is a process for developing public understanding and appreciation of the purposes, programs, and problems of the public schools. Based upon a careful analysis of community life, the informational materials employed are adjusted to the social, intellectual, and cultural levels of the adult groups for whom they are prepared. Public relations may also be regarded, and wisely so, as a way of life that expresses itself daily in the actions and attitudes of teachers toward one another, toward pupils, parents, and the public. Without public support, progress cannot be made; with it, schools are free to move ahead.

THE NEED FOR PUBLIC RELATIONS

Aside from the needs implied previously, there are several which make it imperative that schools develop public relations programs. Some of these will be taken up in the following paragraphs.

¹ Arthur B. Moehlman, *Social Interpretation*, p. 23. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., 1938.

Public Ownership of Schools

It is an established principle that education is a function of the state and a responsibility delegated by law to local school districts. Acting under constitutional authority, state legislatures have created systems of public education and have laid down the basic foundation program. They have placed the administrative responsibility for local schools in the hands of boards of education elected by the citizens and taxpayers of the community. Each board of education is required by statute to place the foundation program in operation, and is permitted by law to develop beyond the minimum requirements such policies and programs as are best fitted to the conditions and needs of the local district. Since the state program represents but a small fraction of the total offerings, local authorities are relatively free to experiment and develop detailed and comprehensive plans of education—a fact that has given American education its unique status.

Boards of education, then, are serving as agents of the state and representatives of the people in the local district. They are responsible for the money, property, program, and children entrusted to their care. Sometimes they forget that this responsibility carries with it an obligation to render an accounting of their stewardship. They have an obligation to report not only to the state, but also to the people of the local district who contribute directly to the support of schools. For this reason, boards of education, with the assistance of superintendents and other professional advisers, are legally and morally bound to keep the people fully informed about the purposes, programs, and problems of the schools. This represents a primary need in the field of school and community relations.

Misunderstanding About Schools

The failure of boards of education and school administrators to report completely and intelligently the facts about the schools has been largely responsible for public misunderstanding of the educational program. The cross currents of conflict surrounding

educational doctrines, their interpretation and application, have left the public bewildered and confused. Confronted almost daily with articles in newspapers and magazines condemning and praising modern education, parents would like to know where the schools in their community stand on matters of discipline, report cards, promotion, failure, foreign language, mathematics, homework, teaching methods, and a great many other things. They would like to understand the reasons for conflict and what their schools are doing, either one way or the other. Their thinking will not be clarified until steps are taken to put the facts before them and to make them parties to the planning that is done. There is no valid reason why they should not be brought into the deliberations and discussions concerning educational policies and programs. They should be given a chance to exchange views with administrators and teachers, to observe the school in operation, and to evaluate the worth of current practices. The public is generally fair once it is acquainted with the facts, but, so long as essential information is denied, criticisms, confusions, and complaints will characterize their reactions to the school. Obviously, there is a compelling need for public relations.

Educational Progress

Institutional progress is directly related to the nature and quality of public opinion at any time. Illustrations are common showing how schools in which new practices have been introduced met with stiff and destructive opposition by certain groups of teachers and parents. These teachers and parents reacted negatively, for the most part, because they did not understand what they were being asked to accept. This is a normal pattern of human behavior and one that is detrimental to progress unless provision is made well in advance to educate such audiences to the worth and value of any proposal contrary to the established way of doing things. Even when those in authority succeed in getting their own way, the results are usually unsatisfactory simply because the opposition resents their actions and remains alert to every opportunity for criticizing and disparaging their

efforts. As the beginning teacher gains professional experience, he will understand more fully how excellent proposals are often defeated through emotionalism, public indifference, and plain ignorance. He will also recognize that progress in schools is dependent upon carefully drawn plans for educating various groups to the need for change considerably in advance of any proposal or recommendation of a definite nature.

Public Attitudes Toward Teachers

Notwithstanding the present sentimental concern over the economic plight of teachers, the public, by and large, is not enthusiastic about members of the profession. Parents are reminded of their own school experiences when they listen to the dinner-table talk of children about favoritism in the classroom, racial and religious discriminations, the administration of corporal punishment, stories of emotional outbursts, excessive and unreasonable amounts of homework, indifference to personal difficulties, and various violations of personal rights. The opinions they form there are often supported by personal observations of teachers in community life: their failure to take part in social and civic affairs, their disrespect for established customs and traditions, and their conduct in public. At the same time parents are acutely aware of the sharp disagreements among teachers on questions of salary, tenure, educational theories, methodology, and related issues that the profession permits to flow over into the press. Stories concerning conflicts appear frequently enough in print to cause people to wonder at times just what kind of individuals teachers really are. These impressions and many like them are responsible for the lukewarm and even unfriendly attitudes of the public toward teachers. That these attitudes need to be counteracted by improvements in the behaviors of some teachers goes without saying. More than that, the public should be made aware of the splendid services rendered by the men and women in the profession and the value of their contributions to American life. The need for an organized program in public relations in this respect is most important for improving the status and promoting the advancement of the profession.

Protection Against Special-Interest Groups

American life has become highly organized into groups and organizations having special interests of their own and programs designed to accomplish the purposes for which they were formed. Sometimes these groups work primarily to secure something for themselves or else they try to have something they stand for accepted by others. A complete inventory of special-interest groups functioning on national, state, and local levels would undoubtedly run into several hundred names and spread over a wide series of classifications by fields of interest.

For many groups the public schools have become an object of attention and a means through which they hope to further their own aims. Their representatives are constantly introducing proposals to school officials, suggesting reforms, emphasizing special educational programs, offering personal and material aid, or undertaking the self-imposed responsibility for protecting the welfare of the schools from the activities of certain other special-interest groups. Their methods run from various degrees of private and public criticism of the schools, as well as open threats, outright defiance, subtle propaganda, published resolutions, political pressures, and related means, to honest offers of advice, suggestion, co-operation, and support of existing educational policies and programs. Surprising as it may seem, the results achieved by these groups are not always commensurate with their size or financial resources. Some are far more skillful than others, and a few stand for ideals that are more readily acceptable to the educational profession and the public.

In any event, the American public school must remain a classless, nonpolitical, nondoctrinary social institution devoted exclusively to the education of children and youth in a democracy. It must be protected from the onslaught made against it by those who would use it as a tool for helping to realize their own selfish purposes. Under present conditions a far deeper road has been made into the school by pressure groups than is generally believed. Fortunately, the majority of these groups are socially minded, though at times misguided in their desire to improve

American life. The influence of all groups, and especially those having selfish goals, can be combated successfully only by public opinion. It is paramount that people know what their schools are doing and what they represent in our society. A strong sense of public confidence in the worth and value of education combined with an objective exposure of the motives and methods of those who would use the schools to serve their own interests would be sufficient to offset or neutralize their influence.

The Price of Neglect

The price of neglecting to undertake a continuous, systematic, well-organized, and strictly honest program in public relations is high. Failure on the part of school personnel to keep the public fully informed about the purposes, programs, and problems of the schools means a static condition militating against progress in education, the continuance of salaries at levels inconsistent with the quality of service rendered, inadequate financial support for all phases of the educational program, inferior and inadequate instructional materials, undesirable working conditions, lack of community respect for the teaching profession, and the possibility of increased exploitation of schools by special-interest groups. The beginning teacher should understand that merely organizing a program in public relations will not accomplish or satisfy existing needs overnight. A good program must be worked out with care, implemented skillfully by all school employees, and carried on continuously over a period of years.

PREPARATION FOR PUBLIC RELATIONS

Training in public relations should be received by all instructional and noninstructional personnel no matter how large or small their part in the program may be. It should be carried on by the building principal working closely with the superintendent and teachers. Emphasis should advisedly be placed upon learning pertinent facts about the school, the nature of the local community, each person's responsibilities in the program, and the means to be used for bringing organized information to the attention of the public.

Facts About the School

It is of primary importance in good public relations that everyone employed by the school shall know from the very beginning why a public relations program is needed and what may be accomplished by it. Knowing these things, teachers and other staff members can appreciate the worth and value of planning the steps to be taken and the contributions they can make individually and collectively to the achievement of defined objectives. Unless care is taken to establish clearly the underlying reasons for the program and the benefits that may be expected from it, the chances are better than even that some individuals will look at the entire undertaking with deep suspicion and question the motives of those in leadership. This attitude of mind leads inevitably to harmful disagreements and failure on the part of these individuals to uphold their share of responsibility.

Once the needs and values of the program are fully understood and accepted, attention must then be given to the facts about the school in which the public has an interest. Among other things, each institutional representative should have at his finger tips material concerning the cost of education in the community, per capita costs for elementary, junior, and senior high schools, the amount of money raised by local taxes, the amount of money received from the state, the formula used for distributing state funds to local districts, the local budget and the amounts or percentage of the total allocated to each classification, the enrollment figures for the school system, the number of teachers employed, the number of noninstructional persons employed, outstanding policies of the school system, curricular organizations, and problems standing in the way of instructional progress. Much of this information can be brought together in a mimeographed or printed handbook for study and reference by staff personnel. Since schools have nothing to hide from the public, each employee should be instructed to answer all questions about the school or to get the answers from someone in authority if he does not already know them.

Another aspect of the in-service program deserving thought-

ful attention concerns the question of what schools should stand for in the public mind. Too many teachers and administrators talk about developing pupils, preparing them for life, or performing helpful services to society. Frequently their explanations are given in such general terms that they carry little meaning. At other times they are unable to explain in a simple and direct manner what they are trying to do and why they are doing it. For instance, one has merely to ask the average teacher to tell what is meant by the term *progressive education* or to outline the philosophy of his school to confirm this point. Few teachers and administrators have thought through the major aspects of the school to a point where they can offer explanations that are understandable to the layman. As a result they are constantly leaving unsatisfactory impressions in the public mind which weaken and often destroy confidence in the value of the instructional program and the competency of educational personnel.

Good public relations dictate the necessity of knowing precisely what particular types of development schools seek to bring about in children, the specific nature of the preparation offered, and the exact services the school stands for in relation to the child, the parent, and the community. In this respect, educators can take a tip from business and industrial leaders who have learned the value of defining what they stand for and making this known in various ways to the public. The more outstanding business and industrial leaders have emphasized free enterprise, good labor relations, public service, progress through research, fair prices, and products of good quality. Educators can also learn from the experiences of business and industrial personnel that no matter how much money and work is expended to educate the public to these ideals, the effect is lost if they fail to live up to the very things they want the public to associate with them. A bad report on labor relations, published statements on the high incomes received by certain executive personnel, excessive profit reports, experience with inferior merchandise, and the like quickly destroy confidence in their institutional advertising, radio announcements, and other statements

used for building good will and public acceptance of their policies.

Information About the Community

Another area of preparation for public relations is that of community study. Here school employees become acquainted with facts upon which certain policies and program activities should be based. An approach to this study can be made effectively by comparing what the school wishes to stand for in the public mind with what the public actually thinks. If it is assumed that a carefully planned questionnaire has been developed along these lines and administered to a selected sample of the population, the comparison will reveal at once attitudes and opinions differing from those which the school wishes the public to hold. This knowledge points directly to certain goals toward which the public relations program must be aimed and implies what aspects of school life need emphasis and clarification in the public mind. Above all, however, it brings out simply and clearly the value of knowing the community before steps are taken to formulate the public relations program.

Public relations authorities agree that a comprehensive analysis of community life should be undertaken by every school planning a program. They recognize the value of building programs on facts instead of guesswork. With few exceptions, the outlines for community analysis and the procedures recommended in the previous chapter can be followed here. In schools, however, where community study is incorporated in the curriculum, most of the physical work of gathering data will have been done so that the remaining tasks become those of organizing the information at hand and interpreting its meaning. Unfortunately, the vast amount of labor involved in surveying the community has caused some school people to shy away from the job. They prefer instead to rely on superficial information, common impressions, and intuitive feelings in planning their public relations. As a result, their programs consist of many activities that bear little relationship to important needs and cause them to wonder why they do not succeed in building good will.

confidence, and public understanding of the educational program.

Program Activities

When a school knows what it wishes to stand for in the public mind and understands the nature of the community with which it is dealing, attention can then be given to the selection of program activities. Among the many techniques available for interpreting the school to the community, those used most commonly are:

1. Newspaper publicity designed to give a balanced picture of school life and the conditions under which the school is functioning.

2. Student publications—newspapers, literary journals, handbooks, and yearbooks—which are prepared by pupils for their own information, but which have considerable material in them for home consumption.

3. Administrative publications—annual reports, budget statements, report card enclosures, letter stuffings, special reports to parents, and other bulletins and pamphlets high in interpretative content.

4. A speaker's bureau operated on a voluntary basis. The names of competent student and faculty members are listed for talks to civic and business groups on various phases of school life as well as special interests they follow in private life.

5. School-made motion pictures showing the school in action. These pictures can give a general overview of the school or be developed around specialized phases of the educational program.

6. Radio programs either in the form of direct broadcasts on a regular schedule or transcriptions available for use at any time in bringing the school before groups and organizations in the community.

7. Special school events, including exhibits, assembly programs, commencement programs, open house, and special observances to which the parents and the public are invited.

8. Student activity programs covering a wide range of interests having appeal to parents and patrons of the school.

9. Parent-teacher meetings, which make possible the discussion of the purposes, programs, and problems of the school as well as the personal progress of individual pupils.

10. Personal public relations activities or the face-to-face type of relations between school employees and the public. These relations are probably more important than anything else that is done to influence public opinion.

Along with these are other school activities having good public relations value though they may be intended for an entirely different purpose. School radio programs are an excellent illustration. Lessons in English, history, and science are sent over the air for instructional use in elementary school classrooms. They are picked up sometimes by a large, nonschool audience, which forms its opinions about the school from what it has heard in these broadcasts. In the same way, appreciations are gained and good will developed as a result of special services provided by the school. Examples of such services include guidance clinics for parents, forums and lectures, use of plant for community meetings and recreation, child study clubs, and so on.

Defining Responsibilities

Once program details have been determined, responsibilities of each committee created and each individual involved must be defined. A distinction can be made advisedly between responsibilities associated with special assignments and those related strictly to personal public relations or the contacts that the individual has formally and informally with the public. In the case of special assignments, no doubt should be left concerning, let us say, the personnel involved, and the procedure to be followed in handling news stories, or the channels of flow and the individuals who will follow through on complaints received about the school. Obviously, some one person or a committee must be assigned to the management of a speakers' bureau and know exactly the nature of the job.

Greater difficulty is experienced in trying to put down with exactness the responsibilities associated with personal public relations activities, yet this field of contact is highly important. It is probably better to establish a set of working principles for guiding action and to examine the opportunities each person has for interpreting the school to the public. Clerks, for example, should have a clear understanding of the value attached to meeting pupils, parents, teachers, and others who come to the office for information. They should be made sensitive to the need for greeting people pleasantly and handling tactfully their requests for information. Custodial personnel, who have a wide range of contacts in the community through lodge, church and neighborhood connections, should be made aware of their role in the program and what is expected of them when discussions arise concerning school policies, programs, and personnel. Attention should be given in like manner to the personal public relations opportunities of doctors, nurses, bus drivers, cafeteria workers, and all others who are employed in the school. In making this analysis, it will be found that the teacher occupies the most strategic position of all employees in promoting public relations through personal contacts. These contacts, for classification purposes, cover relations with other teachers, pupils, parents, and the community. They are of such importance that the remainder of this chapter will be given over to them.

RELATIONS WITH COLLEAGUES

Successful public relations begin in the school. This means that teachers must live harmoniously with teachers, janitors, clerks, and other members of the staff. They must be able to carry out into the community a true feeling of good will toward fellow workers. This is highly pertinent to public relations for the simple reason that no school can provide good instruction or maintain community confidence when it is ripped apart by internal strife. That differences in beliefs and opinions among teachers are bound to occur does not prevent their working together constructively and presenting a united front to the public. Their failure to compromise differences or to adopt

procedures for solving problems democratically leads inevitably to dissension, which often spreads quickly to pupils and the community. Whenever this happens it injures the status of the profession and undermines popular belief in the contributions of the school.

Unwise Practices

There are numerous examples of conflicts between teachers and teachers, and teachers and noninstructional personnel which make for poor public relations. Gossip is one of the most common expressions of such conflict. Being symptomatic of many causes, gossip may be either mild or malicious. In the latter category it sometimes reaches destructive proportions and greatly injures the character and reputation of those at whom it is directed. Every effort should be made to prevent gossip not only because of its harmful results to the subjects but also because it takes root in the community where the school is judged to a large extent by the conduct of its teachers.

A practice closely related to gossip is that of forming small cliques within the school. They may grow out of feelings of a desire for protection experienced by certain nationality, racial, and religious minorities, arise because of snobbishness on the part of a few who feel intellectually or socially superior, or come into existence when the status of some individuals is threatened by progressive developments within the school. The presence of these cliques can split a staff into several factions and turn the school into an armed camp for all practical purposes. This condition cannot be hidden from the pupils and parents and soon becomes a topic of conversation throughout the community.

Various causes of quarreling are likewise common among staff members in schools. They may develop when teachers thoughtlessly demand custodial and clerical services they could take care of themselves. Frequently, criticisms of one teacher by another to a child or a parent are strongly resented and become a cause for open conflict. The borrowing of supplies and equipment without permission or the failure to return such things after a reasonable period of time as well as an unwillingness to share

equally the responsibilities for hall duty, lunchroom traffic control, and playground supervision leads to sharp disagreements. At other times staff members become bitter in their attitudes toward one another over questions of policy, especially some of the so-called "old guard" who are intolerant of anyone or anything that disturbs the complacency into which they have settled over the years.

Along this same line, professional matters involving teacher and pupil welfare occasionally flare into the open with the result that the community becomes a party to the struggle. An example of this occurred recently in a large metropolitan school system where the board of superintendents attempted to introduce a policy of one hundred per cent promotion. The faculty of one building after another took sides on the question and supplied the newspapers with copy for six months. In the face of this publicity, parents and taxpayers became so concerned that it was necessary for the school board to hold several public hearings at which time all sides of the controversy were aired. A similar cycle appears annually or biennially in the case of teachers' salaries because of the inability of professional groups to reach an agreement on so important an issue. Instead of working the problem out to the mutual benefit of all concerned, they have fallen into the habit of taking their troubles to the public and enlisting the sympathetic support of interested lay organizations who either appear before school boards or else flood legislatures with telegrams and letters on their behalf. The residue of this action leaves many people wondering how these same teachers—who quarrel so vigorously among themselves—can teach children the meaning of wholesome, social living as an expression of democracy in action.

Suggested Solutions

It would be a mistake for the beginning teacher to generalize from what has just been said that all members of the teaching profession engage in these practices. On the contrary, most teachers uphold excellent standards of professional conduct and exemplify in their way of life the ideal behind the program of

education in this country. The public, however, do not see this side of the picture often because it is seldom brought to their attention. They are more apt to hear rumors and reports of unconventional behaviors, and particularly so in the case of teachers. From the impressions created by these rumors and reports, the tendency is to hang a label on the entire staff for the indiscreet and foolish actions of a few.

If the teaching profession is sincere in its desire to create good relations with the community, its members must recognize that they cannot indulge in malicious gossip, backbiting, distrust, jealousy, and various forms of neurotic behavior. Even though some of these patterns are natural to human beings in varying degrees, nevertheless they must be kept within bounds. This can be accomplished when means are established whereby dissatisfactions are brought into the open and disagreements are run down before they have a chance to become serious. Perhaps the most effective solutions lie in the voluntary actions of staff personnel in maintaining an atmosphere of friendliness consistent with an avowed way of life. Among other things, any group determined to maintain a high code of professional conduct will obviously respect the rule of keeping internal disagreements to themselves.

TEACHERS AND PUPILS

Public reactions to the school are frequently conditioned by the reactions of pupils toward their teachers. When teachers are liked and respected by pupils, parents, neighbors, and family friends react differently toward them from the way they do when pupils dislike teachers and hold them up to ridicule. Consequently, it becomes a primary responsibility of teachers to establish friendly and constructive relations with pupils and to understand how these relations play a part in gaining public support for the school.

Pupils as Interpreters

Thoughts and feelings that pupils have about teachers are based on a series of observations and experiences growing out of

school life. Pupils are sensitive to the conduct of teachers in corridors, lunchrooms, study halls, and other places inside and outside of the building. They notice clothing, mannerisms, and social relations among teachers. They react strongly to treatment received from teachers and the attitudes expressed toward them. They are quick to catch the interest or lack of interest in a teacher regarding their progress. Irrespective of whether they like or dislike school, succeed or fail in class work, they form opinions and develop attitudes that are passed on to fellow pupils, parents, and friends in the community. What they think and say cannot be discounted lightly because they are interpreting the school at first hand and conveying impressions that influence the judgments of other people. It may be true that their interpretations of the school are poor and sometimes slanted incorrectly, yet parents are more apt to go along with the child than they are to discover or get the true facts for themselves. This tendency itself suggests the need for giving consideration to the relations of pupils and teachers.

Positive Relationships

School impressions conveyed by pupils are often reflections of teacher attitudes and reactions to classroom experiences. A teacher who treats pupils in a friendly and courteous manner, respects their rights as individuals, and shows a sincere and intelligent interest in their problems is generally held in high esteem. Such a teacher is one who studies the backgrounds of pupils and understands their needs and interests. His thoughtful concern for their welfare and progress produces a feeling of being wanted in the school and leads to a happy outlook toward the learning process. The relationships resulting from this attitude of mind enhance the value of the teacher as an interpreter of the school just as they do his influence in directing learning.

Sound learning is the foundation for desirable relations with pupils. Beyond those considerations described in the preceding paragraph, the teacher must develop in pupils an understanding of the purposes underlying school work. If pupils are convinced that what they are doing is worth doing, their attitudes

toward learning become wholesome and difficult tasks are accepted readily. It is necessary, however, to lend encouragement and to give assistance in overcoming problems that arise from day to day and which are different for each child. Pupils must likewise be shown how to evaluate their own progress and to understand their gains in knowledges, habits, appreciations, and skills. Through the sense of satisfaction that comes from real accomplishments, they take a positive interest in learning and express enthusiasm for the school. This reaction is evident in the field of extracurricular activities where pupils enjoy a closer relationship to the teacher and appreciate more directly the value of the activities in which they are participating.

Positive relationships are also brought about by the environment of the classroom or the physical conditions under which learning takes place. A friendly, pleasant, and attractive environment has a strong psychological effect upon many pupils because it is the most pleasant and comfortable surroundings that they experience. Neither at home nor in the community are similar accommodations and conditions to be found. Even though the building may be old and somewhat run down in appearance, a resourceful teacher can do a good deal to improve the classroom by using inexpensive decorations and making the surroundings artistic and attractive. The fact that a room is in need of improvement makes it possible for the teacher to work closely with pupils in planning changes and sharing responsibility for bringing about improvements.

Negative Relationships

Unfriendly relations between teachers and pupils are a source of difficulty in developing public confidence and good will toward the school. Most situations that give rise to poor relations can be controlled by teachers who are sensitive to the reasons for their existence. A leading cause for conflict is found in the belief that stern discipline, strict conformity to regulations, and rigorous standards of academic achievement are the foundations of learning. Where this viewpoint prevails poorly prepared assignments, incorrect answers to questions, inability to follow

directions, subdued whispering, talking out of turn, careless work, inattentiveness, and failure to produce the amount of work required within prescribed limits of time are treated summarily with low marks, emotional outbursts, sarcasm, tongue lashings, and excessive amounts of homework. Without getting at the underlying causes of individual differences, these teachers create a classroom atmosphere fraught with uneasiness, tension, and fear. No wonder pupils depart from school at the end of the day wishing they did not have to return!

Another reason for unfriendly relations is the handling of discipline. Pupils who are tardy, truant, discourteous, recalcitrant, and the like receive punishments they strongly resent. Sometimes they are punished physically, held up to ridicule before the group, detained after school, forced to stand for long periods of time with nothing to do, sent to the principal's office, or even expelled from school pending an interview with the parents. The autocratic administration of these measures seldom takes into account background factors bearing upon behavior. A child may be habitually late entirely because of the fault of the parents, yet he is punished for something over which he has little or no control. In general, pupils are highly sensitive to unfair disciplinary action and prone to develop a group loyalty useful as a defense against the teacher. They have no hesitancy about expressing their resentments and seeking sympathy from adult members of the community; it takes only a few scattered reports of harsh teacher discipline for them to win the support of parents and friends. Competent teachers never permit this condition to arise. They handle discipline cases in private and seek to discover the causes for behavior before undertaking corrective action. The wholesomeness of this procedure turns many discipline cases into public relations assets rather than liabilities for the school.

Closely related to matters of discipline are the social attitudes and opinions of the teacher toward pupils of different races, nationality backgrounds, and religious beliefs. Although the teacher may be prejudiced toward some minority groups, or because of his own status may be equally prejudiced about the

majority group, it is essential to the functioning of the school as a social institution in a democracy that he guard carefully against any direct or indirect expressions of these attitudes and opinions in the classroom. Sometimes this is difficult to do, especially when the behavior of a pupil is obnoxious or when controversial issues that call for thorough and objective analysis are under discussion. Failure to respect the rights of both majority and minority groups inevitably brings about child and parent reactions against the teacher which can do irreparable harm to the school.

A final note of caution to the beginning teacher concerns the handling of pupil failures in academic work. This has been a real source of dissatisfaction in several schools, mainly because parents blame the teacher when their child does not measure up to the standards of promotion. In many instances they are justified in taking this position since no previous notice of the pupil's potential failure was received. If sufficient notice had been given by the teacher, then the parents might have worked with the child or secured outside help. The sudden receipt of a failure notice also raises the question of why remedial aid was not given in school or adjustments made in the program to meet the needs of the pupil. Obviously a wise teacher does not permit himself to be placed on the defensive in a matter of this kind; he brings the child and the parents into conferences long before any failure is officially registered and tries to work out co-operative means for preventing failure. Where this is done satisfactorily, the attitude of the pupil toward the teacher and the confidence of the parents in the school make for sound learning and desirable public relations.

TEACHERS AND PARENTS

Modern educators realize that the school cannot do its most effective work without the co-operation of parents. Because of their natural interest in child growth and development, they make excellent partners in the educational enterprise. Too many times in the past, however, they have been ignored by teachers and made to feel that they were not wanted by the school. In fact, many teachers placed a high nuisance value on parents and

discouraged openly their efforts to discuss child problems. Such a complete or partial disregard for parents has produced a volume of evidence showing antagonism and misunderstanding concerning the policies and practices of the school. These reactions have been reflected in the attitudes and behaviors of some children in the classroom. By contrast, teachers in modern schools create opportunities for parents to participate in the educational efforts of the school and look upon them as friends and fellow workers. They are aware of the contribution that parents can make to instruction and appreciate their importance in developing public opinion favorable to the educational undertaking. They are without question the strongest single force available in the community for facilitating the improvement of the instructional process.

Parent Interests

The beginning teacher must recognize that most parents are anxious to know how their children are progressing in school. First of all they want the teacher to make the school attractive so that children enjoy going there. Then they want their children to acquire a command of fundamental skills, sound habits of study and work, and many new interests related to wholesome living. They place heavy emphasis on honesty, co-operation, respect for the rights of others, learning to get along with fellow pupils, courtesy, correct speech, and several other desirable qualities of conduct. They are concerned that their children shall develop into fine men and women capable of taking their place in society, earning a decent living, and leading respectable lives. These desires and feelings are implied and confirmed in a study by Farley of the interests of school patrons.² He analyzed the field of school news and classified his findings into a series of major topics which were submitted to several thousand school patrons selected at random in 13 different cities. They were

² Belmont M. Farley, *What to Tell the People About the Public Schools*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 355. New York: Bureau of Publications, Columbia University, 1929.

asked to rank the topics in the order of their interest appeal. He then analyzed and classified according to content almost 40,000 column inches of school news appearing in newspapers of ten of these same cities. This content was compared with the interests expressed by school patrons. It was found that these persons were interested in the following topics in the order presented: pupil progress and achievement, methods of instruction, health of pupils, courses of study, value of education, discipline and behavior of pupils, teachers and school officers, attendance, buildings and building program, business management and finance, board of education and administration, the parent-teacher association, and extracurricular activities. It was further discovered that the grade standing of children in school did not affect noticeably the order of parents' interests in school activities.

Parent Visits

In implementing the partnership concept of the home and school, every teacher should encourage parents to visit the school and to make them feel that it is available for assistance in discussing and solving problems related to their children. Invitations can be extended to parents through notes written by pupils or by means of formal announcements mailed from the school. It is a good practice to set aside a definite time for parental visits and to make this an integral part of the school day. Such time should be used exclusively for conferences through which the parent and the teacher have an opportunity to exchange ideas and to develop plans for meeting child problems.

Parents should feel free to visit classes and to learn at first hand how the school functions in organizing and directing the learning process. When they enter a classroom, they should be received courteously by pupils selected for this purpose, seated comfortably, and provided with the instructional materials that will enable them to follow what is going on. A procedure of this kind usually impresses parents with the way the class is managed and removes any uncertainty of mind about whether or

not their presence is wanted. Obviously, the teacher should extend a friendly welcome to parents when this can be done conveniently without interrupting the class.

Many schools have found that parents gain an understanding of instruction when they are invited to study exhibits of pupils' work and to observe school events in action. Exhibits help them to see more concretely just what children do in school. They may consist of nothing more than notebooks, papers, construction projects, and drawings, but they take on meaning when explanations are made by pupils assigned to that specific responsibility. School events such as pageants, dramatic presentations, musical programs, gymnastic demonstrations, assembly programs, open house programs, and the like afford them a broader view of the curriculum and cause parents to realize the educational progress that has been made since they went to school and the opportunities being offered to their children in a wide variety of wholesome activities. There are relatively few of them who ever leave the building after witnessing these events without commenting enthusiastically about what they have seen.

Parent Participation

Parents are more appreciative of the school when they are invited to participate in its affairs. They should have a voice in the development of policies concerning social events, especially in questions involving cost, frequency, location, dress, and supervision. They are much less apt to be critical of policies formulated in this way and far more willing to accept responsibilities connected with the social program. The same principle of participation can be extended with profit to the club program, intramural sports, safety patrol, assemblies, and other extracurricular activities.

In many modern schools parents are being given an important role in classroom instruction. Because of their knowledge and rich background of experience, they are invited to speak on pertinent subjects, explain their hobbies, prepare exhibits, assist in the collecting and classifying of inanimate source materials, help with the building of sets and the construction of costumes for

dramatic productions, go on field trips with pupils, and sit with teachers in planning various learning experiences. The new teacher will be somewhat startled at the willingness of parents to take part in the instructional program and strongly impressed with the value of their contributions to the learning process. He will also realize how important these relationships are in educating the parent with regard to the purposes and practices of the school today.

Another arrangement for parent participation has come into existence in recent years. It is known as the advisory council. Parents are invited by the principal or named by the parent-teacher association to meet periodically with school officials for the purpose of discussing educational problems. Although these parents have no authority to dictate policies or administer programs, their ideas are considered invaluable in reaching decisions that are in accord with the needs of pupils and the wishes of the public. Despite the educational and interpretative values associated with this arrangement, some principals are dubious about the worth of such a council fearing that aggressive parents may try to run the school and undermine their authority. It is highly probable that the lay advisory idea will gain greater support as teachers and administrators become more accustomed to working closely with parents.

Home Visits

There has been a tendency in recent years for schools to adopt blanket policies of home visitation. Believing that such visits provide background material for understanding behavior and that they lead to the establishment of desirable relations, administrators have insisted that elementary, homeroom, and core teachers visit the homes of each child under their control. However, considerable doubt has been expressed by many educators about the wisdom of such a blanket policy. To begin with, many teachers lack the personality and social understanding needed for dealing successfully with parents. Second, nationality, language, religious, and cultural considerations stand as barriers to the acceptance of teachers in many homes. Third, occasionally par-

ents are suspicious of the motives underlying teacher visits and resent their "intrusion" into the home situation.

It is probably far better to use several different means for getting acquainted with parents, leaving to each teacher the choices involved, including that of home visitation. Much of the background material can be obtained from school records and reports of social workers, attendance officers, and other personnel whose contacts with the home arise in a more natural and acceptable way. There are, however, some teachers in every school who can undertake home visits successfully because they possess the personal qualifications required and know the customs and habits of the parents. Usually a teacher who is liked and respected by pupils will have ample opportunity to visit homes on an invitational basis.

Home Contact Reports

Every teacher comes in contact with the home through the medium of reports. They may take the form of cards showing school achievement, letters, telephone calls, special notices, and printed materials of one kind or another. The periodic report card listing the marks received in school subjects is used more than any other type of home contact report. Since it tells the parent only a general story about the child's success or failure in school, efforts have been made to increase its diagnostic value by including statements descriptive of the child's behavior. A few schools have even abandoned report cards in favor of personal letters to parents in which a brief but diagnostic account of progress is given in relation to capacity for learning. Emphasis is placed upon positive achievements, and problems needing attention both in school and at home are pointed out in a friendly way. Sometimes these letters are written only when teachers wish to bring special matters to parental attention; they prefer instead a series of scheduled interviews several times throughout the year.

In answering telephone calls from parents or in telephoning directly to the home, teachers can enhance respect, good will, and a sense of confidence in the school by conducting their busi-

ness in a friendly and efficient manner. Commercial enterprises have recognized for a long time the value of this technique in developing good customer relations and they train their employees to handle telephone calls correctly. Schools have been somewhat remiss on this point, but many of them are now trying to improve this type of contact with the home.

Similar opportunities for bringing about friendly and responsive attitudes on the part of parents exist in the field of special notices and reports. Printed enclosures telling about school services may be slipped into letters and report card envelopes. Printed forms may be used advising parents of choices their children wish to make in extracurricular activities, school subjects, and vocational fields. Results obtained on tests and inventories of interests, social attitudes, social maturity and the like can be translated into simple fact statements that are deeply appreciated by many parents. Actually, everything that is done to keep parents informed about the school life of their children builds strong support for the school.

Parent-Teacher Associations

An outstanding means for encouraging co-operation and developing community understanding of the school is the parent-teacher association. Organized by individual building units, the PTA, as it is commonly called, is a voluntary organization affiliated with the National Congress of Parents and Teachers. Although its program is determined locally by the officers and members of the group, it is guided in its actions by the purposes of the National Congress. According to Article 11 of the By-Laws of the National Congress, the main objectives are:

- “1. To promote child welfare in home, school, church, and community; to raise the standards of home life; to secure more adequate laws for the care and protection of women and children.

- “2. To bring into closer relation the home and school that parents and teachers may cooperate intelligently in the training of the child, and to develop between educators and the general public such united efforts as will secure for every child the high-

est advantages in physical, mental, moral, and spiritual education."

Since some objectives do not come within the scope of the school, the teacher should be primarily interested in those pertaining to closer co-operation between the home and school, child welfare, public opinion, and desirable legislation.

Programs through which the association's objectives are carried out differ widely in local schools within the same community and among schools in various parts of the country. Some are built around the idea that the PTA is a fund-raising organization for purchasing instructional supplies and equipment that the board of education fails to provide. A number leave the impression that the association is a convenient excuse for holding card parties, dances, and teas. In other instances the principal activity is that of listening to outside speakers who may say many worth-while things that are sometimes related to education. The majority of parent-teacher groups, however, strive diligently to realize the ideals for which they were founded. Parents and teachers work together on common problems, study various aspects of school and home life, learn how child growth and development takes place, assume responsibility for certain phases of the school program, and take a dynamic interest in all matters related to child welfare.

As a general rule the success or failure of the parent-teacher association in individual schools can be traced to one or more of the following causes. The more common reasons for failure are: (1) the lack of a sound and sensible program, (2) the social ambitions of those in leadership who use the offices for their own glorification, (3) the persistent demands for money with which to buy school supplies and equipment, (4) the similarity in programs that hold little interest for the average parent, (5) too strict a concern for petty local matters, (6) undemocratic methods of procedure, and (7) the tendency to complain about the school instead of taking a constructive attitude toward its improvement. The more common reasons for its success are: (1) a sincere conviction on the part of teachers and parents concern-

ing the place and importance of the association, (2) a clearly defined set of principles outlining the association's sphere of activity, (3) competent leadership, (4) a real working program pointed specifically at the objectives of the association, (5) assurance that the activities undertaken by the association can be handled successfully, (6) variations in regularly scheduled programs, (7) opportunities for any parent to obtain a position of leadership, and (8) recognition of contributions to child welfare arising from the activities of the association.

COMMUNITY RELATIONSHIPS

The subject of teacher-community relations is one deserving of thoughtful attention by beginning teachers. In small communities the public fails to distinguish between the rights of teachers as private citizens and their obligations as employees of boards of education. As a result, their activities outside of school are scrutinized closely and censure is heaped upon them for actions contrary to established modes of living. They are called upon to perform services and to give generously of their time without thought of remuneration. They do not enjoy the same freedoms as do other members of the community, being classed in much the same way as those in positions of religious leadership. That these demands and restrictions are unfair is admitted, but the fact remains that they must be taken into consideration in appraising the status of teachers as public relations agents of the school.

Community Requirements

Teachers in any community are forced to accept and abide by certain demands made upon them. The nature of these demands varies with the size and location of communities. Small communities insist that teachers establish residence and employment contracts are written with clauses to that effect. They exercise control over their living accommodations through lists of approved rooming houses which superintendents hand to new teachers. These lists contain the names of landlords who are close to the administration and the board of education. Teach-

ers are strongly discouraged from renting apartments since the community is prone to view with suspicion any form of conduct that cannot be kept under careful surveillance. If an apartment is rented, those who call, the housekeeping arrangements, and the hours kept become subjects of local gossip. Care must be exercised by teachers regarding their manner of dress. Too lavish a mode of dress draws sharp criticism. Nor can teachers, for that matter, afford to look shabby. Women teachers face a barrage of hostile comment if they use too much facial make-up or wear unusual coiffures. Teachers must not go about with young men or women who do not come from the "right families." Too frequent dating of the same person will be translated into an engagement with marriage close behind.

Another demand made on teachers is that of buying all their merchandise in local stores. It is felt, especially by the retail merchants' association, that teachers should spend their money where they earn it. It matters not a mite whether prices are higher and selection limited. Teachers will even have pressure brought on them in communities to buy life insurance from a certain agent or automobiles from a named dealer. Many teachers rightfully take the position that where they spend their money is their own business, yet if they plan to remain in the community and work for advancement in the school system they must be sensitive to this demand. Sometimes it can be met successfully by purchasing minor items of personal use often enough to create the impression of being steady customers.

The drinking of alcoholic beverages is also considered a serious matter. Regardless of what parents may do, teachers are expected to set high examples of sound moral conduct. Failure to respect this requirement inevitably leads to dismissal.

The beginning teacher can get a cross-sectional view of community reactions to various forms of behavior from the data reported in Table 17.

Although these findings apply to only one state, it is probable that the reactions given would be comparable in other states. Since the study was made before the war, however, it is very likely that some modifications would be found today because of

the shortage of teachers and the willingness of communities to tolerate more liberal forms of behavior in order to retain their services.

Regardless of the reactions that teachers may have to the unfairness of the demands imposed upon them, particularly in small communities throughout the country, they cannot afford to per-

TABLE 17

Opinions of 622 Teachers on Probable Community Reaction
to Teacher Out-of-School Behavior ^a

<i>Teacher Behavior</i>	<i>Percentage Reporting Reaction of</i>			
	<i>Approve</i>	<i>Tolerate</i>	<i>Disapprove</i>	<i>Discharge</i>
Dating a student.			78.8	6.9
Dating a teacher.	42.8	31.0		
Dating a town person.	60.0	23.0		
Smoking in public.		25.6	55.6	4.0
Playing cards.	33.6	35.2	23.5	
Playing pool or billards.		33.0	40.4	
Drinking alcoholic liquors.			63.6	19.3
Using rouge, lipstick, etc.	57.9	27.3		
Leaving often week-ends.	41.5	39.2		
Owning automobile.	82.5			
Not attending church.		44.0	36.3	
Women teaching after marriage.	51.5	21.2		
Nonschool work for pay.	30.9	28.1	20.2	
Pay for coaching, speaking, etc.	35.2	32.6	15.8	
Making political speech.	10.6	19.6	52.1	
Running for political office.		25.2	41.8	
Joining teacher union.	50.0	18.6	9.2	

mit friction to develop which separates them into one group and the public into another. Every effort must be made to harmonize these differences and to maintain friendly, working relations with the community. The task is not an easy one, yet concerted, intelligent teacher action to educate community leaders to a reasonable point of view can bring about satisfactory results over a period of time.

^a Adapted from Lloyd A. Cook, Ronald B. Almack, and Florence Greenhoe, "Teacher and Community Relations," *American Sociological Review*, 111:171. April, 1938.

Participation in Community Affairs

Teachers are expected to become associated with and to participate actively in the affairs of community organizations. These include a wide variety of civic enterprises according to the findings of Greenhoe.⁴ She analyzed a large number of life histories prepared by teachers to discover the kinds of community activities in which they reported membership. From this analysis a classified list was developed and then submitted to several hundred teachers who checked the activities in which they participated. The five categories of activities most frequently checked were: (1) religious—Bible study, church, Sunday school, young people's societies, Y. M. C. A. and Y. W. C. A., (2) professional—adult education, alumni, child study, mothers' clubs, and PTA, (3) relief-welfare—Red Cross, women's benefit, community chest, child welfare, and relief agencies, (4) leisure pursuits—social clubs, art-literary clubs, hobby, dramatics, musical, bridge, and country clubs, and (5) civic—Grange, Chamber of Commerce, holiday celebrations, civic luncheon clubs, farm bureau, ladies' aid, and WCTU.

Sometimes pressure is brought on new teachers to join a number of these organizations as soon as their contracts have been signed. It is brought either by representatives of the organizations themselves or by school officials acting at the request of outside groups. Unless new teachers are careful about the way in which they meet these demands, they may find themselves involved in so many community affairs that their school work suffers and they have little time left for their own recreation. It is probably better tactfully to decline all such requests at the beginning and to judge after the school year has gotten under way and knowledge of the community has been acquired just how much time they can reasonably give to community affairs and what activities they care to take part in. New teachers should not forget that they were employed to teach and that their first responsibility is to the children in their classrooms.

⁴Florence Greenhoe, "Teacher Participation in Community Life," *School Life*, 26:213-15, April, 1941.

They will find that effective teaching combined with friendly attitudes on the part of children will do more to build good will toward the school and respect for the profession than a wide scattering of civic and social undertakings.

What has just been said does not in any way alter the fact that all teachers should take an active part in community affairs, if for no reason other than public relations. By virtue of their intelligence, background, and training, they are in a strong position to make an outstanding contribution to the work of organized groups and to have their contribution associated with the schools they represent. On the personal side, they will find that people appreciate their services and that they will stand back of them if situations arise, even within the school, in which they need support. At the same time, their membership enables them to influence the attitudes of fellow members toward the policies and program of the school. They can correct common misunderstandings that arise, supply essential factual data, and interpret the school in action. Most of this can be accomplished through informal conversations, with occasional speeches, motion pictures, or other media being used to fit the opportunities that are available. Through this exchange of ideas teachers can interpret the school to the community and the community can be interpreted to the school.

Closely related to the public relations value of organizational membership is that of co-operation between the school and community agencies. Situations arise daily involving requests from agencies for help in forwarding some worthy undertaking. The fire department may wish the aid of pupils in checking or making a survey of fire hazards in the home. The department of public works may seek co-operation in conducting a cleaner streets campaign or in having families wrap garbage in order to facilitate its collection. Various family agencies will bring facts about family life to the attention of school officials and ask that adjustments be made in daily schedules of certain pupils or that particular types of lunches be provided for undernourished children or that clinical services be arranged for indigents needing medical attention. Volunteer teacher and pupil services will be

sought by other agencies engaged in raising funds or securing clothing for charitable purposes. Teachers will be asked to serve on special committees created to meet some pressing social problem or to speak before different groups on subjects of public interest in connection with their committee assignments. Quite often business groups, church organizations, and social clubs will ask the school to supply entertainment for their meeting. Though it is apparent that limits sometimes must be established beyond which the school cannot go in meeting all requests, still it must be willing to co-operate fully with many community agencies because of the benefits that result to children. In so doing, it builds relationships with these agencies which are extremely important in influencing public opinion.

Instructional Contacts

From an instructional point of view, the modern school looks upon the community as a laboratory for learning. Field trips are taken to places of interest to supplement and enrich information gained from printed materials, surveys of different kinds are carried on in connection with units or problems being studied, school and work experiences are joined together through co-ordinated programs with business and industry, and service projects are undertaken for the improvement of community life. These activities bring the pupils and teachers in direct contact with the public. The efficiency with which they are managed and the conduct of those who participate create impressions that are either favorable or unfavorable to the school. No teacher can afford to take a group of pupils on a trip who are noisy, discourteous, and destructive of public property. Nor can school-work arrangements be entered into if pupils are late to their places of employment, rude to employers, and indifferent to their work responsibilities. Care must be exercised in the organization and supervision of all contacts of this character; otherwise the use of the community as a laboratory for learning defeats its own purpose and leaves a residue of public dissatisfaction with the school and those in charge of its program.

Personal Contacts

Studied consideration should be given by beginning teachers to their manner of meeting people and the way in which they handle topics of conversation about the school. If they are indifferent to community customs, loud in voice, demanding of service in stores and public places, aloof in their attitudes toward parents whom they meet on the street, prone to ridicule prevailing conventions, and generally disinterested in public reactions to their behavior, much of the fine work that is done to establish good will and respect for the school can be neutralized. They must, like business and professional people, be aware that the public reacts to them just as they react to the public. Friendly greetings, acknowledgements by name, and simple politeness are the stock in trade. In the course of these contacts when conversation turns to school matters, it should be remembered that fault finding and grumbling do not pay dividends. Even some teachers with years of service behind them have not yet learned that these practices give a negative coloration to public thinking about education and account for some of the very conditions to which they object. It is far more sensible for teachers to discuss their work and that of their colleagues in positive terms and to ask the public to look ahead with them to the constructive improvements that time should bring. By taking this position consistently, teachers can condition the public to think of them and the schools in terms of services and needs leading inevitably to increased amounts of support, better instruction, and a higher social, financial, and professional status for teachers themselves.

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Part VI

MEMBERSHIP IN THE
TEACHING PROFESSION

Chapter 21

BELONGING TO EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATIONS

LIKE MOST other occupations, the teaching profession has a wide variety of organizations through which it seeks to improve the welfare of its members and of the schools. The 1945-46 *Educational Directory* of the United States Office of Education lists approximately 500 organizations that are national or regional in scope, and slightly more than 100 that are state wide. In addition, it includes about 35 educational foundations and boards, 30 associations or foundations that are international in scope, and approximately 50 church educational boards. These, together with hundreds of local associations of all kinds, constitute a fairly reliable picture of the extent to which the educational forces have organized themselves for service and for mutual improvement.

The majority of these educational organizations have been developed to serve some particular group or some special function. There are, for example, organizations designed to serve the needs of those teaching particular subjects. Others have as their important functions the accrediting of secondary schools and colleges, the promotion of certain special phases of education such as child health or library service, the advancement of the interests of a particular level or division of the school system, and the co-operation of individuals engaged in the same or similar work. However, most significant to the entire teaching profession are those organizations which seek to promote all legitimate educational enterprises and which welcome to membership all those engaged directly or indirectly in school work. Most important of these, within the boundaries of the United States, is the National Education Association, commonly known as the NEA.

THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

The National Education Association is a voluntary organization of teachers, administrators, and others engaged or actively interested in educational work. It seeks to promote the interests of the entire educational system and of all workers in education regardless of rank, position, or length of service. To the teaching profession it means essentially what the American Medical Association means to physicians and surgeons and what the American Bar Association means to lawyers. Its purpose, as stated in the act of incorporation, is "to elevate the character and advance the interests of the profession of teaching and to promote the cause of education in the United States." The origin of the organization and its development have been briefly outlined as follows:

The association was organized in Philadelphia in 1857 by a small group of educational leaders from the state associations under the name, The National Teachers Association. In 1870 it added the American Normal School Association and the National Superintendents Association and the name was changed to the National Education Association.

In 1886 it was incorporated in the District of Columbia, and by a special act of Congress in 1906 it was incorporated under its present name, The National Education Association of the United States. It is now the largest educational organization in the world.

As the Association grew the members recognized the need of a more effective organization which would represent the interests and ideals of the teachers of America. As a result the Association was reorganized in July, 1920, at Salt Lake City, under a delegate plan. By-laws were adopted providing for a Representative Assembly composed of delegates from state and local associations of teachers.¹

¹ *Booklet of Information, 1934-35*, p. 3. Washington: National Education Association, 1934. See also, *Proceedings of the Seventy-Sixth Annual Meeting of the National Education Association* (1938), pp. 635-75.

Membership

As indicated above, anyone actively engaged in educational work or anyone interested in the promotion of education may become a member of the National Education Association. Memberships in the organization are classified as active, associate, and corresponding. Active members are those actually engaged in teaching or in other educational work. Associate members are persons not actively engaged in teaching but who are otherwise interested in promoting the welfare of the schools. A third group are known as corresponding members. They are eminent educators living in other countries whose membership is granted by vote of the Board of Directors. They pay no dues, receive all association publications and are limited to 50.

The annual dues of active members are five dollars a year. The payment of these dues entitles them to nine issues of the *NEA Journal* and the privilege of attending meetings of the Association and its departments, to vote for delegates to the Representative Assembly, to serve on committees and commissions, when called upon, and to hold office.² Upon the payment of ten dollars, the member, in addition to the privileges mentioned above, receives the *Research Bulletins* and *The Annual Volume of Addresses and Proceedings*. Opportunity for life membership is provided for by paying a flat fee of one hundred and fifty dollars which carries with it the same privileges as the payment of the special five-dollar annual membership dues.

Enrollment in the National Education Association was relatively insignificant until after World War I. In 1918 the number of members was approximately 10,000; by 1925 it had grown to almost 160,000, and by 1930 to more than 200,000. A new peak of membership was reached the next year when a total of 220,149, or approximately 24 per cent of the total number of teachers in public elementary and secondary schools, were enrolled. The effect of the depression was soon felt, however, so

² *NEA Handbook and Manual*, p. 84. Washington: National Education Association, 1947.

TABLE 18

Membership in the National Education Association in Each
of the 48 States and Other Areas³

<i>States, and other areas</i>	<i>Estimated number of teachers 1946-47</i>	<i>May 31, 1947</i>	<i>Per cent of teachers members 1947</i>
<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>
Total.....	889,360	386,643	43
Alabama.....	20,300	12,351	61
Arizona.....	3,900	3,178	81
Arkansas.....	12,500	7,325	59
California.....	44,500	24,862	56
Colorado.....	8,800	4,298	49
Connecticut.....	10,225	4,198	41
Delaware.....	1,725	969	56
Florida.....	14,375	4,098	29
Georgia.....	22,955	11,154	49
Idaho.....	4,269	1,614	38
Illinois.....	45,900	22,755	50
Indiana.....	24,000	14,457	60
Iowa.....	22,675	6,921	31
Kansas.....	17,045	10,342	61
Kentucky.....	18,100	10,970	61
Louisiana.....	14,700	4,998	34
Maine.....	5,900	2,636	45
Maryland.....	9,634	4,456	46
Massachusetts.....	23,600	5,428	23
Michigan.....	33,000	7,726	23
Minnesota.....	20,000	4,856	24
Mississippi.....	16,000	3,916	24
Missouri.....	23,778	8,190	34
Montana.....	4,600	3,287	71
Nebraska.....	12,300	3,726	30
Nevada.....	990	758	77
New Hampshire.....	2,915	1,145	39
New Jersey.....	25,800	10,641	41
New Mexico.....	4,422	2,265	51
New York.....	76,000	15,685	21
North Carolina.....	26,400	10,970	42
North Dakota.....	6,500	2,772	43
Ohio.....	40,500	24,474	60
Oklahoma.....	19,000	4,581	24
Oregon.....	8,400	6,735	80
Pennsylvania.....	58,548	36,677	63
Rhode Island.....	3,800	274	7
South Carolina.....	15,600	4,149	27
South Dakota.....	7,000	1,279	18

³ Adapted from the *Journal of the National Education Association*, 36:521.
October, 1947.

TABLE 18 (Continued)

<i>States, and other areas</i>	<i>Estimated number of teachers 1946-47</i>	<i>May 31, 1947</i>	<i>Per cent of teachers members 1947</i>
<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>
Tennessee.....	20,500	12,343	60
Texas.....	45,771	10,898	24
Utah.....	4,806	4,757	99
Vermont.....	2,400	911	38
Virginia.....	19,300	10,584	55
Washington.....	13,900	11,624	84
West Virginia.....	15,000	10,620	71
Wisconsin.....	19,700	6,770	34
Wyoming.....	2,560	1,057	41
Alaska.....	345	321	93
District of Columbia.....	3,559	1,887	53
Hawaii.....	3,300	3,127	95
Puerto Rico.....	7,563	138	2
Other Possessions.....		12	
Foreign.....		478	

that by 1934 membership had dropped to 187,645. Since that time it has increased steadily until in 1947 it stood at 386,643.⁴

The distribution of current membership is shown in Table 18, together with the estimated number of teachers and the percentage of their membership in the NEA.

Organization

The education association of a state, territory, district, or local teachers' organization may affiliate with the NEA and thereby become eligible to send delegates to the Representative Assembly. Through such representation any state or local association may have a voice in shaping policies of the national organization. Each affiliated association is entitled to send one alternate and one delegate to the Representative Assembly for each one hundred of their members, or major fraction thereof, who are also NEA members, up to five hundred such members. Thereafter one

⁴ *NEA Handbook and Manual*, p. 375.

delegate and one alternate may be chosen for each five hundred of their members who are also members of the NEA.

The National Education Association is controlled and managed by the Representative Assembly, a Board of Directors, a Board of Trustees, and an Executive Committee. Special officers include a president, twelve vice-presidents, an executive secretary, an associate secretary, an assistant secretary, and a treasurer. The Representative Assembly holds its sessions during the regular summer meeting of the Association and at that time elects the officers for the following year. It also hears and passes on recommendations and reports of officers and committees. The Board of Directors is the principal policy-making body of the Association. It elects one member of the Board of Trustees and one member of the Executive Committee each year; determines the place and the time of the annual meetings; and appropriates funds for carrying on the work of the Association. The Board of Trustees consists of the president and four members elected by the Board of Directors. It has charge of the Permanent Fund and elects the executive secretary. The Executive Committee consists of nine members who carry out the wishes of the Representative Assembly and the Board of Directors.

The headquarters of the National Education Association are in Washington, D.C. There, in a special administration building, the executive secretary and his staff carry out the policies of the governing bodies of the Association.

Departments and Divisions

Within the NEA proper there are 29 departments and 14 different headquarters divisions which have been organized respectively to promote the interests of particular groups in educational work and to handle the accounts and special services of the Association. Each department elects its own officers and holds its own meetings, the best known being the annual convention of the American Association of School Administrators which is held in February. The functions of the 29 departments are implied by their titles which are:

Adult Education

American Association for Health, Physical Education, Recreation

American Association of School Administrators

American Association of Teachers Colleges

American Educational Research Association

American Industrial Arts Association

Art Education

Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development

Audio-Visual Instruction

Classroom Teachers

Elementary School Principals

Higher Education

Home Economics

International Council for Exceptional Children

Kindergarten-Primary Education

Lip Reading

Music Educators National Conference

National Association of Deans of Women

National Association of Journalism Directors of Secondary Schools

National Association of Secondary School Principals

National Association of School Secretaries

National Council of Administrative Women in Education

National Council for the Social Studies

National Science Teachers Association

Rural Education

Secondary Teachers

Speech Association of America

United Business Education Association

Vocational Education

Any person who takes out active membership in the NEA automatically becomes a member of the Department of Classroom Teachers. Usually a separate fee is charged for membership in any of the other departments. Most of these departments publish either a magazine for their members or special bulletins and reports. Several of them put out a yearbook or volume annually that is devoted to a special subject or problem

Education Association. As it was, hundreds of schools were closed, terms were reduced to five and six months, and thousands of teachers either were left unpaid or were tendered a pittance that did not even approximate the cost of living. That conditions would have been infinitely worse had it not been for the National Education Association and its emergency committees no one in the least familiar with the situation can doubt. In 1933-34, when the school systems of some states were about to collapse, these committees were successful in securing federal aid that helped to keep teachers employed and prevented what would in many cases have been disastrous salary reductions. Similarly, the Association's work in recent years has had a strong influence on salary increases and the recruitment of new teachers to meet the critical shortage of qualified personnel in public schools.

For a fee of only five dollars the teacher not only lends his support to the best interests of the public schools of the nation, but benefits personally in important ways. In addition to receiving the monthly publication of the Association, he insures for himself the protection that can come from an organization that now involves almost 400,000 people and is likely in the future to have a membership in excess of 500,000. Such a force cannot be taken lightly by the foes of the American school system or by those who oppose the efforts of the teacher to improve his professional and economic status. Although all teachers share in the benefits arising from the efforts of the NEA, whether or not they are members, no individual knowingly would care to enjoy these advantages without contributing to the organization that provides them.

STATE EDUCATION ASSOCIATIONS

Each of the 48 states and the District of Columbia has its own educational organization, usually known as the state education association or the state teachers' association. These organizations, though affiliated with the National Education Association, are in no sense subordinated to it. Each has its own constitution, bylaws, and officers and each is operated independently of other state organizations and of the NEA.

State education associations had their beginning during the general educational revival in the United States in the second quarter of the nineteenth century. As has been true in so many other respects, the New England states led in this effort to professionalize the work of the teacher. In 1845 or thereabouts, Connecticut, Massachusetts, and Rhode Island each established a state education association, and since that time such an organization has been set up in each state.

Membership

Membership in 48 state education associations, the District of Columbia, Puerto Rico, Hawaii, and Alaska totaled 755,740 on May 31, 1947, or about 80 per cent of the number of teachers employed in the elementary and secondary schools of the nation. Membership in a state education association is usually open to all individuals engaged in educational work regardless of position, and an associate membership is frequently provided for lay citizens interested in the promotion of the school system. The annual dues average about three dollars. For these the teacher receives the monthly publication of the association in addition to the benefits accruing to the entire profession as a result of the association's activities. The fee also entitles the teacher to attend all meetings of the organization.

Administration

State organizations, like the National Education Association, frequently provide for the affiliation of district or local teachers' organizations. In any case, the general policies of the association are usually determined by an assembly of delegates representing the teachers of the various sections of the state, the number of delegates in the assembly depending on the enrollment in the state association. This representative body assumes responsibility for changes in the constitution and bylaws and for the establishment of the general policies that are to govern the activities of the association. A board of directors or trustees or an executive committee, is made responsible for the execution of these policies in the interim between annual meetings. In ad-

dition, each association usually has a president, one or more vice-presidents, a treasurer, and an executive secretary. The last-named official is in charge of the office of the association and is responsible for the membership and the administration of all routine matters. The character and ability of the executive secretary will in most cases determine the effectiveness of the association. The president, whose office is essentially an honorary one with the term limited to one year, has little to do with the direct administration of the association except to plan for and preside at the annual meeting.

Services of State Associations

State organizations, again like the National Education Association, render their largest service in interpreting educational problems to the public and in promoting legislation favorable to the school system and to the teaching profession. Without the cooperation made possible by such associations, administrators and teachers would never have been able to secure the many improved school laws that now appear on the statute books of the various states, nor would it have been possible to have obtained for the schools the financial support that they now have, meager though it is in a few states. Through the efforts of state associations, children have been provided better buildings and equipment, curriculums have been revised and improved, free textbooks have been supplied, the training and certification of teachers have been placed on a higher plane, and in a dozen other ways the school system has been given character. In all these changes the teacher himself has received benefits in the form of increased salaries, better tenure, provisions for disability and old-age retirement, better working conditions, and freedom from cheap and unprofessional competition.

In addition to these general contributions of state associations to education and to the teaching profession, a few organizations provide more direct services for their teachers. They operate placement bureaus, help to support aged teachers and those who are incapacitated, and operate group insurance plans.

In the light of these many contributions, it is not surprising

that superintendents urge upon teachers the importance of joining the state education association and of attending its meetings. Teachers frequently complain that the addresses at state meetings are dull, that they gain little or nothing by attending, and that they have no real share in the management of the association. With respect to this last complaint it should be pointed out that the average teacher usually has as much voice in the control of his association as he ever has in any form of representative government. In any organization of this nature the degree to which an individual can influence its policies is in large measure determined by his ability, his experience, and his willingness to work at the task. Furthermore, it would seem the part of wisdom for the immature and inexperienced to leave large responsibility for the control of an organization with those who are professionally mature and who have demonstrated their ability to lead and direct. The teacher who is inclined to complain that he has no part in the control of his state association should bear in mind that in later years when he has achieved some prominence in his work responsibilities are likely to come, sometimes to his regret, and he himself may be one of the "select" who are accused of controlling the organization.

The complaint that speeches at educational meetings are dull is sometimes justified. However, addresses of this kind are the exception rather than the rule. For the most part they are interesting and stimulating. Moreover, the values derived from the speeches and papers are not all that the teacher receives from attendance at such meetings. More perhaps is gained from the informational exchange of opinions and experiences and from the contacts that are made. In education, as in any other field of endeavor, success is in some degree determined by the extent of the individual's professional contacts. Nowhere can these contacts be extended more rapidly and successfully than at educational meetings.

LOCAL ORGANIZATIONS

District organizations affiliated with the state education association and local teachers' clubs operate in most sections of the

country. These local associations attempt to do for a small community of teachers what the larger organizations do for the state and nation. The improvement of schools and the promotion of the interests of the teaching profession are their primary objectives. Through local organizations teachers voice their approval or disapproval of administrative policies affecting the welfare of the teaching staff, contribute to campaigns for increased support and for better working conditions, interpret the educational program to the public, and oppose the efforts of those who, because of ignorance or for selfish reasons, would cripple or destroy the school system.

AMERICAN FEDERATION OF TEACHERS

Among the younger and more aggressive of the national teachers' organizations is the American Federation of Teachers. Organized on April 15, 1916, it became affiliated the next month with the American Federation of Labor, in which it now holds a charter. According to an information leaflet explaining its history and program, the A. F. of T. affiliated with the American Federation of Labor "because it recognized that organized labor was the major instrumentality in establishing our system of free tax-supported schools, has been their constant and consistent protector and defender, and has an advanced educational program second to none."⁶

Objectives

The chief objectives of the A. F. of T. are stated as being (1) to improve the educational facilities for the children of the nation, and (2) to improve the working conditions of teachers in the public schools.⁷ It is pointed out that these two objectives are inseparable, the one being dependent upon the other. In order to accomplish these objectives, it is considered necessary to have an organization of teachers who are strong enough "to determine their own status, to decide questions of professional conduct and

⁶ *Questions and Answers About the American Federation of Teachers*, pp. 1-2. Chicago: American Federation of Teachers (Leaflet).

⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 5.

terms of contract, and to exercise fully their own rights as citizens as well as teachers.”⁸

A more complete description of the Federation’s purposes is stated in Article II of the constitution, which was adopted in 1933.

“1. To bring associations of teachers into relations of mutual co-operation.

“2. To obtain for them all the rights to which they are entitled.

“3. To raise the standards of the teaching profession by securing the conditions essential to the best professional service.

“4. To promote such a democratization of the schools as will enable them better to equip their pupils to take their place in the industrial, social, and political life of the community.

“5. To promote the welfare of the childhood of the nation by providing progressively better educational opportunity for all.”

Membership

Membership in the American Federation of Teachers is small compared with that of the National Education Association. When it was organized, the combined membership of its eight chartered locals amounted to only 2,800. Membership grew rather quickly, as shown in Figure 43, in the years immediately following so that by 1920 the number of locals had increased to 140 with an approximate membership of 10,000. Membership declined steadily, however, during the next seven years but picked up again when the depression period set in. Since that time growth in membership has increased sharply reaching in 1947 a peak of about 42,000. The American Federation of Teachers claims a membership of approximately 7,000 teachers in Chicago alone, or nearly two thirds of the teachers employed in the public schools of that city. It has locals in all except one of the 25 largest cities in the United States; in about three fourths of all cities over 100,000 population; and roughly 300 locals in cities and towns of less than 100,000 population.

A good many teachers are opposed to the idea of membership

⁸ *Ibid.*

in the American Federation of Teachers principally because of its affiliation with organized labor and the belief that membership may carry with it the same obligations that are imposed upon members of unions. It is pointed out further that affiliation with labor is not desirable for such reasons as the following: (1) the interests of teachers and labor are too different to afford a mutual benefit; (2) the gap between teachers and administrators

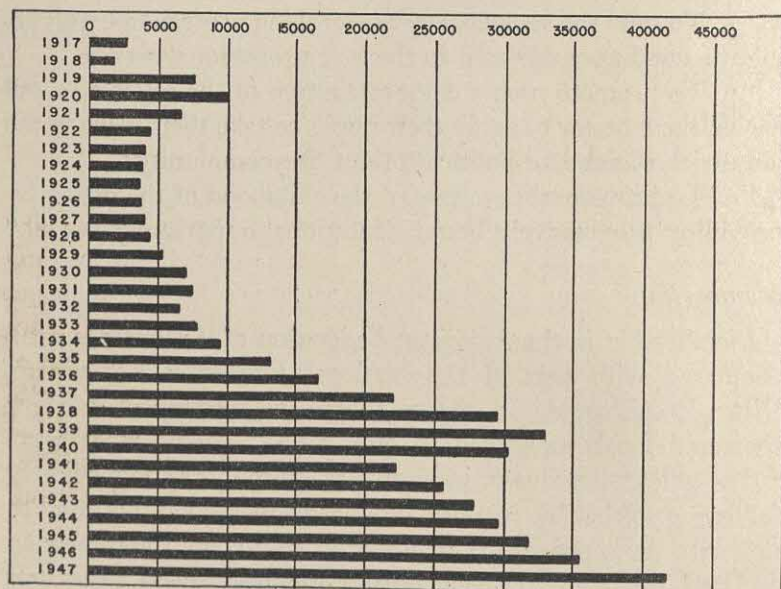


FIGURE 43. Growth of Membership in the American Federation of Teachers, 1917-47.

would be widened just as it has been between labor and management; (3) affiliation would destroy the confidence of the public in the integrity of the teaching profession; (4) if teaching is to establish itself as a profession, it must do so through means comparable to those used by the medical profession, not through labor unions; (5) any tendency to follow the selfish practices of labor unions would be contrary to the social obligations of teachers; (6) teacher membership in labor unions would destroy the nonpolitical, nondoctrinal, classless character of the school

as a democratic, social institution; (7) labor leadership is scarcely of the kind that teachers would care to follow; and (8) the methods employed by labor—strikes, boycotts, picketing, and closed shops—for solving problems are inconsistent with ideals of the teaching profession.

On the other hand, the American Federation of Teachers definitely takes the position that it is an autonomous body within the American Federation of Labor and that it cannot be compelled by any labor authority to take action it does not believe in. Moreover, it maintains a nonstrike policy, though this was violated by a few locals during the recent movement for higher salaries for teachers. The A. F. of T. points out, however, that there were far more strikes by nonunion teachers' organizations than by A. F. of T. locals.

Some advantages for teachers in affiliating with labor are given as follows: (1) labor affiliation makes possible a strong and courageous position on all matters that affect public education; (2) local teachers' associations increase their power and influence in the community through fraternal affiliation with thousands of organized workers; (3) teachers are in a better position to obtain desired increases in salary and improved working conditions; (4) labor support gives protection and security to members of the profession more so than any other organized group; (5) labor unions have always taken leadership in advancing the interests of public education; (6) being part of a large organization, teachers would have a faster and more efficient method of solving their problems; (7) it affords a better guarantee against insecure tenure, corrupt political organization, and domination of the educational system by powerful interest groups; (8) it provides more hope for freedom in teaching and defeats attempts to set up censorship in the writing and publishing of textbooks; and (9) teacher unions have been successful in accomplishing many things that the older and more conservative educational associations have failed to accomplish.

Whether the beginning teacher wishes to join the Federation or some other educational association is strictly a personal matter that he must decide for himself. He should recognize that

in many small communities teachers are discouraged from affiliating with labor or, for that matter, any organization differing fundamentally in purpose and program from the older and more established educational associations.

THE AMERICAN EDUCATION FELLOWSHIP

The American Education Fellowship, formerly known as the Progressive Education Association, came into existence in 1919. Representing a reaction of teachers and laymen against the standardized methods of mass instruction employed in public schools, the Progressive Education Association advocated an educational program based largely upon the Dewey philosophy of experimentalism. It sought to develop a type of education in which the following concepts were emphasized: (1) the natural development of freedom; (2) motivation of learning based upon child interest; (3) teacher guidance of learning instead of teacher domination of learning; (4) the scientific study of child development; (5) attention to all influences affecting a child's physical development; (6) closer co-operation between the home and school; (7) a curriculum built around meaningful life experiences of learners; (8) learning experiences fitted to pupil needs at various maturation levels; and (9) evaluation of outcomes in terms of desirable behavior changes.

During the early stages of the progressive movement, stress was placed upon the doctrine of the child-centered school. This doctrine was interpreted by some of the advocates of progressive education as meaning that learning experiences should be developed almost completely around the immediate, expressed interests of pupils no matter where they might lead. This being the case, these enthusiasts saw no necessity for planning instructional procedures nor did they permit any preplanning of curricular content. They firmly believed in "an inner urge of growth" and the unfolding or realization of "self" through activities selected by children to satisfy their interests. They failed to distinguish between sound, purposeful learning and the superficial whims and fancies of pupils. Moreover, their sentimental concentration upon the individual without reference to his social

responsibilities produced situations in some classrooms bordering on anarchy.

The general public reaction to the laissez-faire brand of progressive education carried on by the extremists forced the Association to re-examine its position and to clarify its basic philosophy. In a statement prepared for this purpose by a committee of the Association, emphasis was shifted from the child-centered concept to the principle of personal development through intelligent social action. The committee pointed out that:

Contrary to popular understanding progressive education has never existed as a movement exclusively devoted to a child-centered concept of education. It took the serious threat of our social order at the onset of the economic depression, however, to bring the social concern into the open for examination and study. It was then that emphasis upon the growth of children alone was seriously challenged; this challenge came from a group within the movement itself. These educators charged that, either intentionally or unintentionally, . . . the advocacy of individual growth without steady reference to social issues had placed education . . . in the service of the strong economic forces of our culture.⁹

The committee stated further that:

It is only in the process of living and working together that the optimal development of personality can be achieved. Only as man shares with his fellows in achieving common ends, does he best grow and develop as a distinctive personality. Hence, in a democracy it is necessary to organize our social, economic, and political life in such a way as to provide for ever-increasing participation by all. This means, on the one hand, that the unique contributions of the individual to the common good are cherished and utilized; on the other, that group action springs increasingly from common consent. Decisions are arrived at through cooperative thinking.¹⁰

⁹ *Progressive Education: Its Philosophy and Challenge*, pp. 3-4. Yearbook Supplement, New York: American Education Fellowship, 1939.

¹⁰ *Ibid.*, pp. 6-7.

Despite the efforts made by the Association and its members to correct the unfavorable opinions of the public and a large segment of the teaching profession toward progressive education, criticism continued and appeared to reach a high point during the early years of World War II. Lack of preparation on the part of draftees who were high school graduates, particularly in mathematics and science, was attributed to progressive education and progressive ideas in education. Some feature writers for newspapers made a scapegoat out of progressive education and placed on it the blame for many ills. Conservative magazines used it as a target for abusive, editorial comment and supported their position by running special articles denouncing progressive practices in the schools.

In the midst of this controversy, the Board of Directors of the Progressive Education Association recommended that the name of the association be changed and that a new approach to education be adopted. It seemed to the Board that greater attention should be given to the whole life of the community. As the Board expressed it, "The *new job* calls for us to operate outside as well as inside the schools, to go out into the communities in which schools stand, and in which our children live. We must see what the forces are that affect the lives of our children outside of school; we must take a militant part in seeing that our towns provide all the necessary services for children, and that these services operate efficiently."¹¹ As to a new name, it was recommended that it be called the American Education Fellowship because it emphasized a closer relationship to the international New Education Fellowship. The PEA had been the United States section of this international group for several years. The new title, moreover, would tie in with the concept of a world community and a type of education designed to create mutual understanding among nations and people.

These recommendations were submitted by mail ballot to the members of the Association for their approval or disapproval. A majority of the members voted in favor of the proposed changes, hence the new title and the shift in emphasis to the

¹¹ "Your Board Reports," *Progressive Education*, 20:370, December, 1943.

idea that the school in the neighborhood does and should affect the total life of the community.

The membership of the organization dropped after these changes were made. A number of loyal supporters felt that it was a mistake to change the name of the organization at a time when it was under fire, and others took the position that the ideals which they fought for had been surrendered. Although the total membership probably did not exceed 12,000, at best, the losses now suffered weakened the status of the organization and reduced it to a comparatively minor influence among the educational forces of the nation. Strong attempts have since been made to increase membership and with some success, but the figures are still considerably below those of the peak years. The Fellowship still retains the official, monthly publication of the Progressive Education Association, known as *Progressive Education*, through which the work of the organization is reported and articles are printed favorable to the purposes for which the group is working.

Program

The program of the Progressive Education Association has been carried on mostly through committees and commissions. By 1928 such committees as the following were active: Progressive Education in Rural Schools; Community School Relations; Experimental Schools; Child Development and the Pre-School and Elementary-School Curriculum; and International Relations. In 1935 a Commission on Educational Freedom was appointed to work out means for protecting and increasing the academic freedom of teachers and students alike. Another commission was set up the following year on Intercultural Education to continue the work started by the Service Bureau for Education in Human Relations. At the secondary school level studies and investigations were undertaken by the Commission on the Relation of School and College—commonly referred to as the Eight-Year Study; the Commission on the Secondary School Curriculum; and the Commission on Human Relations.

Through the publications and activities of these committees

and commissions the attention of the teaching profession was brought to bear on many problems of learning and child welfare which had been glossed over or largely ignored by teachers in conventional schools. At the same time, a wholesome and stimulating point of view was developed with regard to the purposes of education, the nature of child growth, the psychology of adolescence, curriculum organization, the use of community resources in learning, and the social function of the school in a democracy. The Eight-Year Study experiment broke the bonds of traditionalism in secondary schools and introduced the evaluation movement which broadened the scope of educational measurement and introduced new techniques and instruments for determining the extent to which schools were approximating the objectives of their programs. It also created the workshop as a means for facilitating the in-service training of teachers.

Publications in the form of books, reports, pamphlets, and articles prepared by members of various committees and commissions represent an outstanding contribution of the Association to educational literature. Their influence on educational theory and practice not only has brought about many desirable changes in schools but also will probably continue to direct the course of progress for years to come. Whether or not the American Educational Fellowship will reach the same significant position as the Progressive Education Association remains to be seen. There is no doubt that the community-centered school which the Fellowship is emphasizing deserves full consideration by every teacher and administrators because of the value it can have for American life.

OTHER EDUCATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

In contrast to the National Education Association with its affiliated state and local branches, the American Federation of Teachers, and the American Education Fellowship, a variety of organizations have been established for some specific educational function or to serve the interests of some special group. The vast majority of these organizations may be classified conveniently under one of the following headings: (1) accrediting and

standardizing associations; (2) organizations representing a particular subject or a division of the curriculum; (3) organizations for special phases of education; (4) organizations for special types of schools; (5) organizations representing certain specialized positions; (6) educational boards and foundations; (7) professional and honorary organizations; and (8) home and school organizations.

Accrediting and Standardizing Associations

As indicated by the title, these organizations have as their principal function the formulation of educational standards and the accrediting of schools on the basis of these standards. The best examples of this type of organization are the six regional associations for secondary and higher education, including the New England Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, the Middle States Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, the Western Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, and the Northwest Association of Secondary and Higher Schools.

These associations have as their major function the improvement of secondary schools and institutions of higher learning and the co-ordination of the efforts of these two divisions of the school system. Any high school or college, public or private, that can and will meet the standards set by the association in its region is eligible to membership in the organization. Membership for a high school or college means not only that the school is regarded as superior within its classification but likewise that its work is acceptable on transfer to all other member schools and usually to most schools of the nation. Certain of the regional associations do not accredit schools in a formal sense, but all have developed standards by means of which they seek to increase the efficiency of the secondary schools, colleges, and universities in their areas. The area served by each regional association is indicated in Figure 44.

These associations are of particular interest to high school

teachers because they often determine standards related to teacher preparation, load, library, class size, laboratory facilities, salaries, and the length of the school year. Although they have been criticized frequently for their insistence on uniform standards that are quantitative rather than qualitative in nature, those associations employing the *Evaluative Criteria* have eliminated a good deal of this feeling.

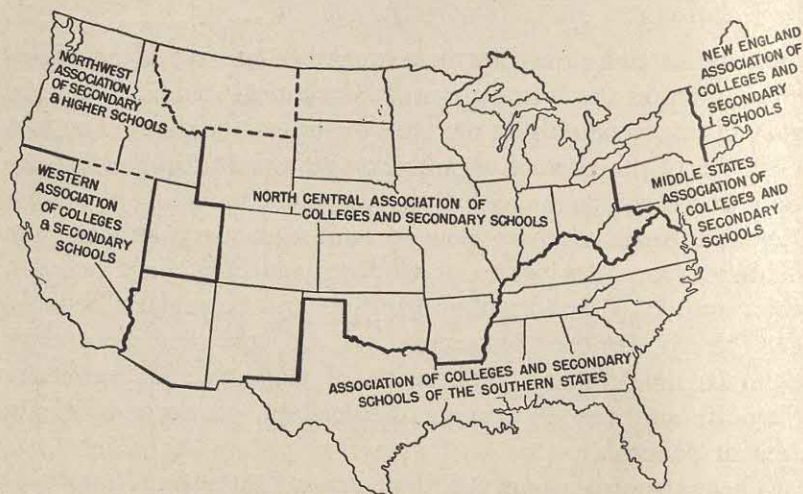


FIGURE 44. Areas Served by Regional Associations.

Developed by the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards over a six-year period ending in 1939, the *Evaluative Criteria* sought to answer these questions: (1) what are the characteristics of a good secondary school? (2) what practical means and methods may be employed to evaluate the effectiveness of a school in terms of its objectives? (3) by what means and processes does a good school develop into a better one? (4) how can regional associations stimulate secondary schools to continuous growth? ¹² As a result of the study, a procedure was developed for applying a comprehensive set of criteria to a secondary school in order to determine how effectively it was carrying out its pur-

¹² *How To Evaluate a Secondary School*, p. 1. Washington: Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards, 1939.

poses, fitting its program to the needs of pupils, and undertaking necessary improvements. In schools where the criteria are applied, teachers have a major role in studying their own situation and evaluating the extent to which the school is meeting the criteria enumerated in the forms used for making the study. Their judgments are then checked by a visiting committee of educators who analyze all aspects of the instructional program and report their findings to the accrediting association. Schools that fall below the norms established for institutions of similar size in the area served by the association are usually given time to correct their weaknesses; failure to make essential improvements results in their being removed from the accredited list. The use of the *Evaluative Criteria* has unquestionably done much to elevate the character of secondary schools and to facilitate the adjustment of instructional programs to local needs and conditions.

Subject Organizations

A second group of specialized organizations is one made up of associations designed to promote interest in the study and teaching of particular subjects or divisions of the curriculum. Such associations usually enroll college as well as high school instructors, and frequently it is the domination of the organization by the former group that prevents the enrollment of larger numbers of secondary school teachers. This type of organization is illustrated by the American Association of Physics Teachers, the American Association of Teachers of French, the American Home Economics Association, the Music Teachers National Association, the National Council of Teachers of English, and the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics. Although most of these organizations are national in scope, a few, such as the Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland, and the Central Commercial Teachers Association, are restricted to smaller areas. Regardless of a teacher's subject interest, there are always one or more national or regional associations with which he may affiliate himself for the purpose of promoting this interest.

Organizations for Special Phases of Education

This classification does not differ greatly from the one just preceding except that the interests represented are somewhat broader than a single subject. Examples of this type of organization are the American Association for Adult Education, the American Child Health Association, the American Vocational Association, the National Academy of Visual Instruction, the National Kindergarten Association, the Association for Education by Radio, and such juvenile organizations as the American Junior Red Cross, the Boy Scouts, and the Girl Reserves. It will be observed that nearly all of these organizations represent activities that are somewhat auxiliary to the general school program.

Organizations for Special Types of Schools

This type of association finds its membership in institutions rather than individuals and has as its primary functions the improvement of the work of a particular type of school and the cooperation of all institutions within a particular classification. It is illustrated by the American Association of Dental Schools, the American Association of Junior Colleges, the American Association of Teachers Colleges, the American Association of Technical High Schools and Institutes, the Association of American Colleges, the Association of American Universities, and the National Association of Accredited Commercial Schools.

Organizations Representing Special Positions

In this category may be listed such organizations as the American Association of Visiting Teachers, the Association of State Directors of Vocational Education, the National Association of Personnel and Appointment Officers, the National Association of Public School Business Officials, and the National Association of Teachers Agencies. These associations might well be listed with one or more of the preceding groups but are classified separately because they are established to meet the needs of a variety of specialized educational services. Their objective is the pro-

motion of the interests of a particular type of worker rather than the interests of a special phase of education or a subject.

Educational Foundations and Boards

Educational foundations and boards are not strictly classifiable as associations since they do not enlist membership nor engage directly in educational work. Instead they are corporations charged with the care and expenditure of funds left in trust for educational or near-educational purposes. These funds are the gifts of wealthy philanthropists who are interested in the development of schools and colleges and the encouragement of educational research. Since 1900 almost a billion dollars has been in trust for the promotion of educational or near-educational projects. Vast amounts have been spent in the south for the establishment of schools for both whites and Negroes, promising members of the teaching profession have been given scholarships and fellowships, teacher-training institutions have been subsidized, research in a variety of fields has been promoted, college and university endowments have been increased, libraries have been established, and in many other ways education, health, and public welfare have been promoted. Among the more important foundations may be mentioned the Julius Rosenwald Fund, the Rockefeller Foundation, the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, the Russell Sage Foundation, the Commonwealth Fund, and the John Simon Guggenheim Memorial Fund.

Professional and Honorary Organizations

The appearance of education as a subject for study in universities, colleges, and teachers colleges has brought about the establishment of several professional and honorary societies for prospective teachers and those already engaged in educational work. Baird's *Manual of American College Fraternities* (1940) lists several professional societies in the field of education. Probably the best known of these are Phi Delta Kappa and Kappa Delta Pi. Phi Delta Kappa is a professional fraternity for male students planning to enter the field of education or closely re-

lated work. It was organized as a national society in 1910. Although the organization will admit to membership juniors, seniors, and graduate students engaged in the study of education, the majority of its members are selected from graduate schools. Its general purpose is to promote the interests of education, with particular emphasis on research, service, and leadership. As its members usually achieve positions of responsibility, the organization is rapidly becoming an important force in American education.

Kappa Delta Pi differs from Phi Delta Kappa in several important respects. It admits to membership both men and women and places greater emphasis on undergraduate memberships. Furthermore, it is essentially an honorary society, whereas Phi Delta Kappa is almost wholly professional. In order to be admitted to Kappa Delta Pi, a student must have attained junior standing, must rank in the upper quartile in scholarship, and must have demonstrated some aptitude for leadership. Its purpose, as stated in the constitution, is "to encourage in its members a high degree of consecration to social service. To this end it shall maintain the highest educational ideals and shall foster fellowship, scholarship, and achievement in educational work." It maintains a Laureate Chapter through which it honors outstanding leaders in the field of education.

Home-and-School Organizations

The last type of organization to be considered is that which has as its principal purpose the closer co-operation of the home and the school in the interests of the child. Many organizations of this type have been established in the past under a wide variety of names. Today, however, the dominant association of this kind is unquestionably the National Congress of Parents and Teachers. The original purpose of this organization seems to have been to encourage parents to study children in order that they might co-operate better with the schools and other social agencies responsible for child welfare. Gradually, however, its interests were enlarged until today local parent-teacher associations may be found participating in a wide variety of activities.

In fact, so diversified have their interests become that in some instances school administrators have been called upon to exert some pressure in order to prevent them from interfering in matters that are strictly professional in nature. In general, however, parent-teacher associations have contributed a great deal in promoting mutual understanding between the school and the home, in interpreting the needs of the schools to legislators and other public officials, and in opposing the efforts of those who would weaken or destroy the educational system.

Any parent is eligible to membership in the association of the school that his child attends, and may continue as a member after the child has left school. In a majority of schools, teachers are urged to become members and to participate in all activities of the organization. The typical local association will hold one meeting a month at which there is discussed by an outside speaker or a member of the club some topic relating to school or child welfare. Throughout the year the association will also lend its support to certain special projects. It may raise funds for the purchase of playground equipment, library books, the furniture for a teachers' room, pictures for corridors and classrooms, or a variety of other things that the average school needs. It may work out a program for the beautification of the school buildings and grounds, sponsor contests, promote clinics, cafeterias, and special feeding for undernourished children, collect clothing and books and distribute them to poor children, conduct campaigns for additional school support or for improved school legislation, and in many ways lend itself to the general improvement of the school and community morale.

RELATED READINGS

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Cocking, Walter D., "Must Teachers Strike," *School Executive*, 66:5. April, 1947.

Makes the point that teachers should not strike if their salaries are considered the responsibility of all parties concerned; otherwise the opposite would be justified.

Corey, Stephen M., "Teachers' Associations, Organizations, and Unions," *Review of Educational Research*, 10:255-57. June, 1940.

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Kuenzli, Irvin R., *The Union in Action in 1947*. A Report to the 30th Annual Convention of the American Federation of Teachers. Chicago: American Federation of Teachers, 1947 (Mimeographed).

This report gives a picture of what local teachers' unions are doing in various parts of the country. It is helpful in understanding the program of the American Federation of Teachers.

Moehlman, Arthur B., *Social Interpretation*, Chap. 4. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., 1938.

An excellent chapter on the function of the teaching profession, professional organization needs, and the difficulties they experience in functioning.

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Complete information about the organization and activities of the NEA are available in this handbook.

"Objectives and Program of the American Education Fellowship," *Progressive Education*, 22:9-10. October, 1944.

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"Should Membership Be Optional?" *Nation's Schools*, 37:46. January, 1946.

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A symposium on the meaning of progressive education.

Chapter 22

MAINTAINING A CODE OF ETHICS

CUSTOMARILY, teaching is referred to as a profession. Whether it is properly classified depends upon the criteria employed in defining the word *profession*. Most people would grant without argument that medicine, law, and theology are professions, and nearly all would include dentistry, engineering, and architecture. Few would be willing, however, to extend the definition of a profession to include many of the occupations placed under this title by the United States Bureau of Census. This agency lists several professions and semiprofessions including actors, authors, chemists, draftsmen, photographers, nurses, librarians, chiropractors, and radio announcers.

THE CHARACTERISTICS OF A PROFESSION

Whether or not teaching is classified correctly as a profession should be decided in terms of certain definite criteria. Such criteria may be derived from a careful examination of the attributes of those occupations which are almost universally recognized as professions. Hence the question may be raised as to what are the characteristics of law, medicine, and theology, or, if we would be somewhat more liberal, dentistry, engineering, and architecture, that set them apart. Analysis reveals five characteristics that are, for the most part, common to these six occupations; at the same time they exclude most others. These characteristics may be described as follows:

1. A relatively long period of specialized training
2. Specialized knowledge and skill preserved in technical language
3. Life membership
4. Effective organization

5. Practice based on ethical principles and the ideals of service¹

Judged in the light of these characteristics, can teaching really be classified as a profession? It has been shown, for example, in preceding chapters that there are still a good many elementary and secondary school teachers whose lack of preparation disqualifies them from meeting the criterion of specialization. On the other hand, and in steadily increasing numbers, there are many whose preparation entitles them to be known as specialists. These teachers have followed programs of study specifically designed for the training of teachers and have usually extended their preparation through one, two, or even three years of graduate work. Their training, both in quantity and in extent of specialization, compares favorably with the established professions. If judged in terms of its better-trained members, including those in college and university work, teaching may properly be said to have acquired one important characteristic of a profession. If judged in terms of its thousands of poorly prepared members, it is still far from this goal. Essentially the same conclusion must be reached with respect to the second of the five criteria, for it is principally another aspect of the first. Those teachers whose training has been extensive and purposeful are in possession of specialized knowledges and skills and are thoroughly familiar with the technical language of education. The remainder are not, and to the extent that teaching remains in the hands of this latter group it can scarcely claim to be a true profession.

One of the most obvious characteristics of the recognized professions is the permanency of the work. Once a man elects to become a physician and completes his preparation, there is little likelihood that he will ever change his occupation. The same is for the most part true in law, theology, dentistry, engineering, and architecture. It is by no means true with respect to teaching. In the discussion of teacher tenure and turnover it was pointed out that each year a substantial percentage of the ele-

¹ Wording of criteria suggested in part by Ralph D. Owen in "The Census and the Teaching Profession," *The Phi Delta Kappan*, 9:98. December, 1930.

mentary and secondary teachers of the nation leave the profession and are replaced by beginners. In no respect does teaching depart further from the characteristics of a true profession than in the matter of turnover. The causes of this condition have been discussed previously and here need only be enumerated. In the main they are the standards for entrance to the work, the predominance of women, low salaries, and unsatisfactory working conditions.

With respect to the fourth criterion, teaching appears to make a better showing than on any of the first three. The National Education Association enrolls almost 387,000 members and the combined enrollment of the state associations is in excess of 755,000. Moreover, there are organizations catering to every type of teacher and to every educational interest. However, mere numbers do not make effective organization. As important as their services have been, the National Education Association and the state organizations have yet a long distance to go before they serve either the teacher or the schools as they should. Moreover, the vast number of organizations, with their many overlapping functions and their sometimes ineffective meetings and publications, are indicative of the fact that maturity in organization has by no means been achieved.

The last criterion has not been considered in any preceding chapter and for that reason is discussed in some detail in the following pages. To what extent are practices in education based on ethical principles and the ideal of service?

ETHICAL PRINCIPLES IN THE ESTABLISHED PROFESSIONS

It is common knowledge that practice in the long-established professions is in part governed by ethical principles as opposed to legal compulsion. In the medical profession, for example, there are certain things that the respected physician does, not because he is legally compelled to do them, but because they are governed by his code of ethics. He must do certain things and refrain from doing certain other things if his activities are to be countenanced by his fellow physicians. As a member of a true profession, he has dedicated his life to certain ideals of service. These

ideals his honor and professional pride will not permit him to disregard.

What is the source of the ethical principles governing a particular profession? Certainly they have not been suddenly and arbitrarily devised. From generations of experience there are gradually evolved certain customs and standards of practice that the profession as a whole recognizes as good. At first these principles are simple and few in number, but with the passing of time they become more and more complex. Furthermore, they are likely to be undergoing gradual revision as a result of new experiences. In time certain of these principles become so fixed in the traditions of the profession that it occurs to someone to write them down. In their written form they are circulated among the members to remind them of their professional obligations. Gradually these simple statements of ethical ideals are enlarged and revised until they ultimately encompass most of the relationships involved in the profession. When all of the essential ideals of service have for the time being been carefully stated in written form, the profession is said to have developed a code of ethics.

For the best example of the evolution of a code of ethics, reference must again be made to the medical profession. The ethical principles now observed by this profession had their origin in the oath of Hippocrates, which was promulgated in the early fourth century. This oath, which is only about 250 words in length, touches upon the principal moral problems confronting the physician of that time. Some of the principles mentioned are, of course, no longer applicable to the profession. Others have persisted and are today represented in the code of ethics recognized by the American Medical Association. This modern code, which covers approximately ten printed pages, is known as the *Principles of Medical Ethics*. It deals with the physician's duties to his patients, with his relations to other physicians and to the profession at large, and with the responsibilities of the profession to the public.² The first section, which is in the nature of a preamble, reads as follows:

² Edgar L. Heermance, *Codes of Ethics*, pp. 338-347. Burlington, Vermont: Free Press Printing Company, 1924.

A profession has for its prime object the service it can render to humanity; reward or financial gain should be a subordinate consideration. The practice of medicine is a profession. In choosing this profession an individual assumes an obligation to conduct himself in accord with its ideals.

Certain of the principles covered by the code are so carefully observed by the members of the medical profession that almost all lay people are aware of their observance. These are illustrated by the following quotations:

The confidences concerning individual or domestic life entrusted by a patient to a physician and the defects of disposition or flaws of character observed in patients during medical attendance should be held as a trust and should never be revealed except when imperatively required by the laws of the state.

A physician should give timely notice of dangerous manifestations of the disease to the friends of the patient. He should neither exaggerate nor minimize the gravity of the patient's condition.

A physician is free to choose whom he will serve. He should, however, always respond to any request for his assistance in an emergency or whenever temperate public opinion expects the service.

Solicitation of patients by physicians as individuals, or collectively in groups by whatsoever name those be called, or by institutions or organizations, whether by circulars or advertisements, or by personal communications, is unprofessional.

Physicians should expose without fear or favor, before the proper medical or legal tribunals, corrupt or dishonest conduct of members of the profession.

When a physician succeeds another physician in the charge of a case, he should not make comments on or insinuations regarding the practice of the one who preceded him.

The poverty of a patient and the mutual professional obligation of physicians should command the gratuitous services of a physician.

The preceding principles indicate in a general way the nature of the code of ethics of the medical profession. Other estab-

lished professions and dozens of trades and businesses have prepared comparable statements dealing with relationships peculiar to their work. The American Bar Association has adopted a canon of ethics for lawyers, which covers 32 rather distinct items and closes with a recommended oath of admission; several codes have been prepared by the various engineering groups and societies; the American Institute of Architects has prepared a list of principles governing the professional practice of members and in addition a general canon of ethics; and the American Dental Association has adopted an abbreviated code covering a few of the more important professional relationships of the dentist.³

Codes of ethics such as those referred to above have their origin in the belief that the members of a profession are expected to place the general welfare above their own interests, and that all their practices are to be based on established social and moral principles interpreted in the light of the relationships peculiar to their work. Obviously, the mere preparation and publication of a code of ethics do not insure that ethical standards will prevail in practice. However, the written code does tend to objectify the principles that experience has demonstrated to be ethically sound, and it serves as a basis for exerting moral pressure on those who would willfully or ignorantly fail to observe them. To be effective, a code of ethics must have its roots in the experiences and traditions of many generations. Morals and ethical principles evolve; they are not prepared on a moment's notice. Furthermore, a code of ethics is likely to be effective only when the profession that it represents is sufficiently homogeneous and close knit to make possible the exertion of real pressure in the direction of its enforcement. A high degree of specialization, life service, and organization are all essential to the enforcement of ethical practices.

Close observance of a code of ethics does not of itself establish an occupation as a profession. On the other hand, no type of work is likely to be accepted as a true profession unless it has

³The codes mentioned and many others are presented in full in Edgar L. Heermance's *Codes of Ethics*, Burlington, Vermont: Free Press Printing Company, 1924.

prepared a statement of ethical principles and taken some steps at least to see that they are enforced. The remainder of the chapter will deal with this criterion of a profession as applied to teaching.

ETHICS OF THE TEACHING PROFESSION

According to a publication of the National Education Association, the first official state code of ethics for teachers was adopted by the Georgia Education Association in 1896.⁴ Although other state teachers' associations may have considered the action taken by Georgia, only eight states had officially approved codes 25 years later. By 1945 this number had increased to 34, and eight other states had adopted the code of the National Education Association. A few of the remaining states have been working on codes so that "some form of basic code will be operative in all states but four."⁵

The first committee on ethics for the entire teaching profession was appointed by the National Education Association in 1924. Its report, including a code of ethics, was adopted by the National Education Association five years later. Subsequently, another committee was set up to consider possible revisions of this code. The report of this committee was approved by the Representative Assembly of the National Education Association in 1941. It is believed that the work of these committees, together with the action taken by the national group, prompted many state and local associations to work out their own standards of professional conduct.

An analysis of existing codes reveals much variation in specific pronouncements made, but a good deal of similarity in the types of relationships covered and the principles of conduct advocated. Virtually all codes enjoin the members of the groups by whom they have been adopted to increase their professional competency, respect the obligation of contracts, and refrain from malicious criticism of colleagues. Only six states, however—

⁴ *Ethics for Teachers*, p. 4. Discussion Pamphlet No. 5, Department of Classroom Teachers and Research Division. Washington: National Education Association, 1945.

⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 5.

Alabama, Kentucky, Mississippi, Missouri, Oklahoma, and Pennsylvania—have established commissions charged with the definite responsibility to investigate and render judgment on cases of alleged violations of their respective codes. The Pennsylvania code provides that:

“(a) There shall be a Commission on Professional Ethics operating under the Pennsylvania State Education Association. This commission shall consist of the president of the association ex officio and four members of the profession, appointed by the president, with terms of four years each, one expiring on July first each year.

“(b) It shall be the duty of this commission to study the various problems of professional ethics arising from time to time, to give to inquiring members of the profession its interpretation of the meaning of various principles in this code, to arrange for investigations rendered advisable in connection with this code, to take such action in regard to their findings as may be deemed wise, to make recommendations to the state education association as to amendments or additions to the code, and in general to have oversight of all questions arising in connection with the ethics of the teaching profession within the state.

“(c) It shall be the duty of the members of the profession to cooperate with this commission by making suggestions for the improvement of this code and by reporting violations of it.”

Actually, these six states are the only ones that have a real code of ethics because they can enforce the standards agreed upon. Unfortunately their enforcement is weak and should probably have the backing of state law, as is true in the case of a few of the older professions. In states where no provision for enforcement has been made, the persuasive influence of opinion among the members must be relied upon. But these codes should not be dismissed lightly; they are important in establishing prestige for the profession and influencing to some extent the conduct of teachers and administrators belonging to the state associations that have adopted them.

The principle forms of conduct emphasized in the codes may be summarized as follows:

1. The teacher's conduct should be such as will keep him physically and mentally fit.
2. The teacher's conduct should be a worthy example for his pupils.
3. The teacher's conduct should be such as will bring no reproach upon himself.
4. The teacher's conduct should be such as will bring no reproach upon the profession.
5. The teacher's conduct should conform in general to the accepted standards of the community in which he teaches.
6. The teacher's conduct should contribute to harmony and efficiency in all his professional relationships.⁶

For purposes of study it has been found that most of the principles mentioned in codes of ethics can be classified under the following heads: (1) relations with pupils, parents, and the community, (2) relations with associates, (3) relations to the profession, (4) securing and terminating employment, (5) relations with teachers' agencies and publishing and school supply houses. Each of these will be considered now in some detail.

Relations with Pupils, Parents, and the Community

An analysis of codes of ethics, including the one prepared by the National Education Association, indicates that there are at least 11 standards of conduct which deserve some consideration when the issue is that of the relations of the teacher to the pupil, parents, and the community. According to these standards, the teacher is obligated:

1. To recognize that the welfare of the child is the principal obligation of the teacher;
2. To respect the individuality of each pupil and to train it according to its requirements;
3. To deal justly and impartially with every child;
4. To be sympathetic and courteous toward his pupils;
5. To hold inviolate confidential information regarding his pupils;

⁶ *Ethics for Teachers*, p. 9.

6. To refrain from tutoring for remuneration pupils of his own classes;
7. To refrain from imposing his religious or political convictions upon his pupils;
8. To maintain co-operative relations with parents;
9. To participate actively in the community life;
10. To refrain from becoming aligned with factions in the community;
11. To refrain from belittling in any way the community in which he has accepted a position.

As reported in a study sometime ago, the most frequent violations of these rules involved disregard for the standards of the community, unsympathetic and discourteous attitudes toward pupils, and the failure to hold inviolate confidential information.⁷ With reference to violations of community standards, a number of behavior patterns previously considered as being unethical, such as smoking in public, are no longer frowned upon in many communities. A more liberal public attitude has been developed in recent years and people are coming more and more to recognize the teacher's rights as a private citizen to enjoy the same privileges as any other member of the community. The unethical practices relating to pupils cover such matters as the use of insulting language, the holding of personal grudges, unjust and unfair treatment, showing of favoritism, and the unwillingness of some teachers to consider differences among pupils.

Relations with Associates

In this category, the principles listed below are emphasized in existing codes. These principles make it a duty of the teacher:

1. To assist in determining and carrying out the policies of the system;
2. To support his associates in conversation with others within and without the system;

⁷ *Ethics in the Teaching Profession*. Research Bulletin, National Education Association, Vol. IX, No. 1. Washington: Research Division of the National Education Association, 1931.

3. To help his associates with constructive advice and helpful ideas;
4. To give due credit for assistance received and achievements accomplished;
5. To assist associates to secure merited promotion;
6. To refrain from interfering in any way, unless official position warrants, in the schoolroom affairs of an associate;
7. To refrain from shifting responsibility to another which should be borne by himself;
8. To hold inviolate confidential information regarding his associates;
9. To avoid gossip about or adverse criticism of fellow teachers;
10. To transact all business through proper channels.
11. To organize properly and leave for his successor such information, data, and records as may be needed in beginning the next year's work.

The same study referred to previously showed that gossip and adverse criticism of fellow teachers stood highest among the violations reported. Apparently, members of the teaching profession have not yet learned the value of upholding this principle in practice, nor are they aware, perhaps, of the injury they do to the profession, especially in permitting gossip and criticism of colleagues to filter into the community. Many state codes have placed strong emphasis upon this principle. The Rhode Island code specifically states that:

As long as one remains a member of a school organization, loyalty to the interests of the school and community demands the entire suppression of irresponsible criticism of the institution, its policies, and its officers. Especially to be avoided and condemned are inciting and encouraging or tolerating antagonisms among pupils and indulgence in outside criticism, ill-natured gossip, and backbiting. Above all, no teacher worthy of the name will engage in organized conspiracy against his superiors. . . . While one cannot always approve of one's colleagues (or for that matter of superiors either) the only correct professional attitude toward them is genuine (not hypocritical)

reticence, and absence from expressions of disapproval or ill-will.

In general, teachers should uphold the conduct patterns outlined in the Rhode Island statement, though a question might be raised about the protection it appears to offer inefficient and autocratic school officers. Certainly, teachers should have the professional right, and even duty, to criticize factually those in administrative positions whose practices are reproachful, providing that such criticism is kept within the professional group. This can be handled successfully and ethically when administrative means or channels are legally established within the school system for servicing just complaints and criticisms. It is often the unwillingness of school administrators honestly and courageously to face facts regarding their own shortsighted policies and authoritarian practices which bring about violations of the principle under consideration.

The other principles in this same classification that appear to need special attention are those concerning the willingness of the teacher to assist in determining and carrying out the policies of the system, to assist his associates with constructive advice, and to transact business in accordance with prescribed procedure. An illustration of what this last point means in some situations is given in the Mississippi code.

Teachers should not make special requests to individual members of the school board. If an unusual or extraordinary condition should arise, a teacher may go direct to the board, but this should be done in full knowledge of the superintendent or principal. The practice of teachers going direct to the board with complaints, or for favors, should be condemned as opposed to a professional spirit and as counter to principles of successful organization and management.

Relations to the Profession

Some of the responsibilities that members of the teaching profession are expected to carry out by virtue of their membership are these:

1. To manifest a personal pride in the teaching profession.
2. To support and assist in raising the standards of entrance to the profession.
3. To broaden their educational equipment for teaching after entering the profession.
4. To maintain an open mind toward all forms of professional progress.
5. To affiliate actively with professional organizations.
6. To work for material conditions necessary for a high degree of professional service.
7. To report to the proper authorities corrupt and dishonorable practices known to exist.

The emphasis in at least three of the above principles is on the responsibility of the teacher for growth in service. Experience has indicated clearly that teaching cannot achieve the status of a profession until all teachers are willing to maintain open minds with respect to educational developments, and until all are willing to keep abreast of new movements in the field by study and by affiliation with educational organizations. This point of view is illustrated by a statement from the Pennsylvania code.

Every member of the profession should be a progressive student of education. To this end, he should be a thoughtful reader of educational literature, should attend and participate in educational meetings, should engage in such experimentation and collection of data as will test the value of educational theories and aid in the establishment of a scientific basis for educational practice and should be willing to give to his fellow members the benefit of his professional knowledge and experience.

Securing and Terminating Employment

With respect to employment, existing codes of ethics make reference to ten principles of conduct. According to these principles, the teacher is obligated:

1. To apply for a position only to or through the superintendent;
2. To apply only for a position which is known to be vacant;

3. To withdraw all other applications after a position has been accepted;
4. To seek appointment and promotion only on the basis of merit;
5. To refrain from any scheme of self-advertising;
6. To refrain from using open recommendations;
7. To refrain from underbidding a rival in order to secure a position;
8. To refrain from seeking an offer elsewhere for the sole purpose of using it as a means to obtain an increase of salary in his present position;
9. To execute fully any contract entered into;
10. To give due notice regarding termination of employment.

Relations with Commercial Organizations

Certain of the teacher's relationships to teachers' agencies and publishing houses are of sufficient importance to obtain space in a few of the existing codes of ethics. In one or more cases it has been pointed out that the teacher should deal only with teachers' agencies that operate in conformity with recognized professional standards; that no teacher of employing official should receive a commission or anything else of value from a teachers' agency; that teachers should avoid any entanglement with or unearned favors from publishing houses or other firms commercially interested in the schools; that the teacher should not write general testimonials for canvassers or other salesmen; and that the teacher should not solicit sample textbooks when there is no immediate prospect of a change of texts. That these principles are frequently violated, particularly by principals and superintendents, anyone can testify who has had a few years of experience in school work and in the educational system.

Teachers' Opinions

Further evidence of the nature of our gradually evolving code of ethics is given in Table 19. The data of this table were derived from the responses of more than 1,600 teachers and administrators to a questionnaire upon which each was to list six

TABLE 19

The More Important Unethical Practices Mentioned by
Teachers and Administrators⁸

<i>Practice</i>	<i>Frequency of Mention</i>
Gossiping about and criticizing other teachers.....	439
Slurring the profession.....	274
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⁸ *Ethics of the Teaching Profession*, p. 19. Final Report of the Committee on Ethics of the Profession. Presented at the meeting of the National Education Association, Atlanta, Georgia, July, 1929.

common unethical practices. Twenty-nine violations were mentioned 30 or more times. These violations together with the frequency of mention are shown in the table. It will be observed that the five unethical practices most frequently observed were gossiping about and criticizing other teachers, slurring the profession, breaking a contract, applying for positions not known to be vacant, and exaggerating qualifications.

THE NEA CODE OF ETHICS

As example of the form which a code of ethics may take and as a summary of the developing standards of conduct for teachers, there is presented a condensed statement of the code adopted by the National Education Association in 1929, as revised in 1941. Despite the significance of this code for the teaching profession, it is probably safe to say that the rank and file of teachers throughout the nation are not only uninformed with respect to its contents, but many are totally unaware of its existence. Beginning teachers will do well to study carefully the provisions of this code and make them a part of their daily thinking in the field of professional conduct.⁹

The teacher should be courteous, just, and professional in all relationships.

Desirable ethical standards require cordial relations between teacher and pupil, home and school.

The conduct of the teacher should conform to the accepted patterns of behavior of the most wholesome members of the community.

The teacher should strive to improve educational practice through study, travel, and experimentation.

Unfavorable criticism of associates should be avoided except when made to proper officials.

Testimonials regarding the teacher should be truthful and confidential.

Membership and active participation in local, state, and national professional associations are expected.

⁹ For a complete statement of the NEA Code of Ethics see *NEA Handbook and Manual*, pp. 385-88. Washington: National Education Association, 1947.

The teacher should avoid indorsement of all educational materials for personal gain.

Great care should be taken by the teacher to avoid interference between other teachers and pupils.

Fair salary schedules should be sought and when established carefully upheld by all professionals.

No teacher should knowingly underbid a rival for a position.

No teacher should accept compensation for helping another teacher to get a position or a promotion.

Honorable contracts when signed should be respected by both parties and dissolved only by mutual consent.

Official business should be transacted only through properly designated officials.

The responsibility for reporting all matters harmful to the welfare of the schools rests upon each teacher.

Professional growth should be stimulated through suitable recognition and promotion within the ranks.

Unethical practices should be reported to local, state, or national commissions on ethics.

The term "teacher" as used here includes all persons directly engaged in educational work.

CONCLUSIONS

It will be recalled that one criterion of a profession was that of practice based on ethical principles and the ideals of service. After reviewing the material presented in this chapter, the beginning teacher may ask himself whether teaching can lay claim to being a profession. In other words, is practice in education based on ethical principles and the ideals of service? Observation indicates that the reply to this question cannot be an unqualified affirmative. It is true that codes of ethics have been prepared and that a great many teachers now place the ideal of service high in the scale of values, but as a group they create the impression that personal, selfish interests are dominant. Furthermore, the statements of ethical principles are only tentative and in many cases questionable as to the ethical nature of the practices they prescribe. Some of them are based merely upon

a modicum of custom and tradition unsuited to the times. No doubt they are good examples of moralizing, but as practical standards of conduct for teachers they leave much to be desired.

Thousands of teachers are scarcely aware that the profession has made an effort to crystallize its evolving standards of conduct by preparing written codes of ethics, and a vast number of those who know about such codes have little or no conception of what they contain. Even if we were agreed on a single code, which was publicized sufficiently so that every teacher in service knew its provisions, there would yet remain the all-important question of its enforcement. Moreover, teachers must believe in the principles on which any code is based before its effectiveness is assured. Lastly, a high degree of specialization, life service, and strong organization are needed if a code of ethics is to become a dynamic force in governing conduct—and these the teaching profession has not yet attained.

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